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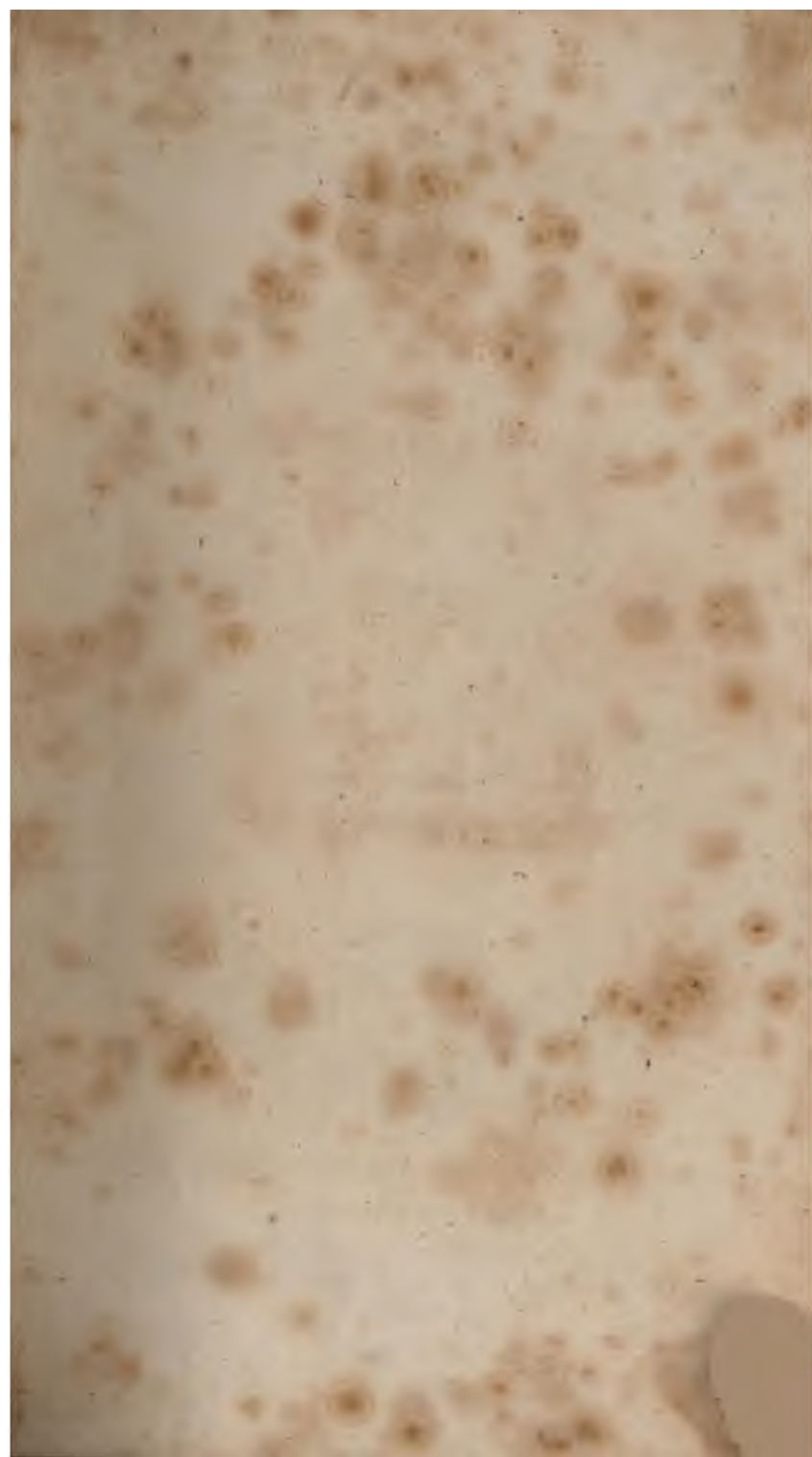
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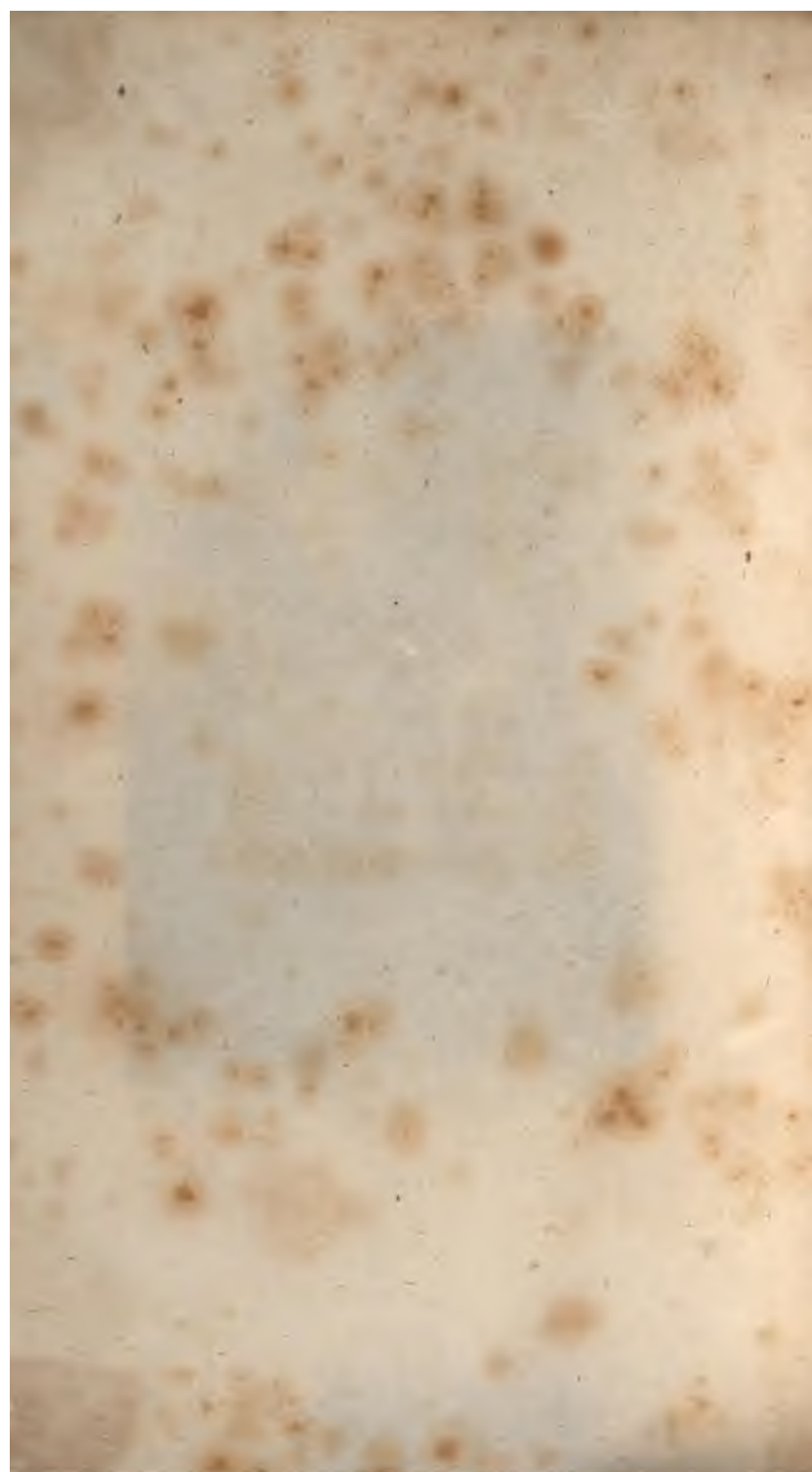


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TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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sank at length only under the influence of that despotic power, which never fails to destroy every noble and virtuous principle of the human mind. Such was the feeling which, at the commencement of the high career that Rome was destined to run, attributed to Romulus that truly Roman admonition; "Go, tell the Romans that the gods are willing that ~~may~~ Rome should be the capital of the world; let them study warfare; and let them know and teach their children that no human forces can resist the Roman arms."

To the study of war, therefore, the Romans applied themselves exclusively of every other pursuit; and they fostered with care that proud and haughty spirit which rendered them a terror to their enemies. At first, this was necessary to maintain them against the attacks of their neighbours, and was essential not only to their security but even to their very existence: but at length this system of policy was supported and promoted by the subjection of the contiguous states, who beheld with a jealous eye the increasing strength and opulence of the military city. The contests, however, in which Rome thus became engaged with warlike and powerful communities, added strength and experience to her arms; and, by adopting the liberal and enlightened policy of communicating her privileges to the conquered, she multiplied her resources and converted her enemies into friends. When once she became mistress of Italy, her eagles did not stay their flight until all the most powerful nations of the earth were humbled and subdued.

Such is the constitution of the human mind, that the splendor of military achievements has ever possessed a strong influence over the feelings of men. The Roman history abounds with narratives of heroic deeds; and hence its pages are frequently filled with little more than mere details of battles, sieges, and invasions, while the more instructive topics of their government, their literature, and their arts, have been too often neglected as unworthy to occupy the attention of the reader. The many various forms which at different periods the Roman government assumed, the singular causes of those changes, and the continued contests between the different orders of citizens on questions of the highest importance, are calculated to furnish the philosopher with almost an inexhaustible source of speculation: but, unfortunately, the materials for such inquiries are few and scanty. The prejudiced pride of the Latin historians led them to prefer the narratives of the successful ambition of their forefathers, to uninteresting discussions on the causes of that success; and the modern writers on Roman history have, in some
degrees

degree perhaps from necessity, fallen into the same error. Among the classical authors, information of this kind is extremely limited: they aimed at giving us a lively and heart-stirring representation of events, rather than a history; and, in perusing their pages, we are led back into the times of which they are speaking. We hear the harangue of the General and the shouts of the soldiery; and we see the attack, the slaughter, the rout, the victory, — the “*fuſos, fugatosque*,” the “*terga cæſa*.” Some of these authors, indeed, display great acuteness of philosophical remark; as, for instance, Sallust and Tacitus: but then it applies rather to the illustration of general principles of action, than to points connected with the polity of their own state. The difficulties, which are thus thrown in the way of such inquiries, have deterred many writers from attempting to give a philosophical history of Rome: but at length such a work has been undertaken, and executed, we think, with very considerable success.

The design of the writer of the volumes now before us is thus briefly stated by himself:

‘ To resolve into its component elements the vast fabric of their dominion: to determine what portion belongs to original design or forethought, and how much should be attributed to what is commonly styled chance or fortune: to ascertain how far there existed a constant adherence to established principles: to what extent a long succession of magistrates, of the most different dispositions and qualities, were guided by the same fixed maxims; and to separate what may be ascribed to the peculiar talents, energies, and genius of each individual from what they all imbibed in common, from the education, institutions, and nurture of their country.’ (P. 2.)

The history of the reigns of the Seven Kings is given almost entirely from the pages of Livy, and is rather too much imbued with the credulity by which the writings of that author are distinguished. In speaking of Numa, Mr. Banks says; ‘ The principles which he held were pure, and his notions of the Deity just and philosophical; for he forbade the placing of images in temples, and the representation of the Divine Being under the resemblance either of man or beast; which prohibition (if Plutarch is correct) continued in force for 170 years. The first occasion of transgressing this ordinance is not mentioned by that author or elsewhere.’ Now, as by the expression ‘ representation of the Divine Being’ we must understand Mr. B. to mean the images of the gods, this statement, which is made on the authority of Plutarch, appears to be incorrect; for Pliny, xxxiv. 7.,

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expressly tells us that Numa dedicated an image of Janus; and, with regard to the prohibition continuing in force for 170 years, we find that, during the reign of Tarquinius Priscus, when not even 100 years could have elapsed from the date of Numa's law, a Volscian artist was invited to Rome to model a statue of Jupiter Olympius in clay. (See Pliny, Nat. Hist. xxxv. 45.)

The character of Numa is thus given by Mr. Bankes :

‘ If we are to estimate the rank which a legislator merits by the objects he proposed to himself, by the means which he employed to accomplish them, or by the fitness of those means to the ends he had in view, none of the celebrated names of antiquity have higher claims than Numa : inasmuch as his main drift was the wisest and best which could engage the mind of man, and was indeed no other than to reclaim and instruct a fierce, illiterate, and discordant people : the instruments he made use of were not those of fear and violence, but of religion and wholesome laws, of morals and example : and so complete was his success that he enjoyed a long reign undisturbed either by internal or external commotions, and left his kingdom more secured and respected, by the reputation of good faith and moderation, than he had received it, by the prowess and triumphs of his predecessor.’

This is all very just ; and yet Numa was a king little suited to the spirit and designs of the Roman people. Under a succession of such sovereigns, their proud and hostile dispositions would have been softened into mildness and peace ; their camp would have been turned into a Lyceum ; and Rome, which became at last the mistress of the universe, would merely have held the same petty rank among nations that was allotted to the cities by which she was surrounded. What effects such a circumstance would have had on the interests of future times is a topic of extensive and difficult speculation.

The abolition of the regal power, and the establishment of a free government, are well told by Mr. Bankes ; who then proceeds to the discussion of a subject which has been little understood and still less investigated by previous historians : viz. the rights of creditors over their debtors during the early ages of the republic, and the prodigious prevalence of usurious transactions ; a topic certainly involved in great confusion and obscurity. To have caused this extraordinary state of society, it does not seem to us necessary to suppose, with Mr. Bankes, that money was more plentiful among the higher orders of citizens than it is usually imagined to have been ; nor can we think with him that there must have been

some beneficial means of employing the money borrowed, by which the borrowers frequently were able to make, and always might have made, considerable returns. At least, such means must have been precarious in the extreme; for the very great number of debtors, who were delivered into the hands of their creditors from absolute inability to satisfy their demands, clearly shews that no reasonable hope of repayment could have been entertained. The only mode, in which such sums could have been replaced, must have been from the spoils of war; and the debts themselves were probably contracted to furnish the borrower for the campaign, or to support him during the intervals of contest.

‘ If,’ says Mr. B., ‘ the annual gain upon capital did not generally exceed twelve per cent., neither the lending nor borrowing at that rate of interest could have been so common as it is represented: creditors would not have put out their money without a reasonable probability of repayment, nor would the lower citizens have been so ready to borrow, where the loss of liberty and subjection to arbitrary punishment were the immediate consequences of a failure in discharging their engagements.’ (P. 73.)

Now it is evident that, as a general fact, the gain on capital could not have risen to this amount, or else the number of defaulters could never have been so large: the re-payment was a mere speculation; and hence a failure in it was punished with great severity, as the only security which the creditor possessed. If we suppose that the money was borrowed merely for the sake of making gain, we may well be surprised that any one should be found to hazard his personal safety in such a cause: but, when we consider that these debts were probably incurred to provide subsistence, we cannot be astonished that the danger was encountered. By what other means, indeed, could the poorer classes have found food? they possessed no property, and they were not included in the census. By what employments could they have gained their bread? the territory of the republic at that time was small; and even those lands were chiefly cultivated by the captives taken in war. No profitable trades were carried on; and their only reliance, therefore, must have been on the fortunes of their more prosperous fellow-citizens.

The subsequent passages contain some curious observations on this subject:

‘ It is true that high interest does not of itself indicate a multiplicity of such transactions, but rather the contrary: yet history here, if it deserves credit, speaks of these practices as extremely prevalent, and involving nothing less than the whole inferior classes;

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so that the high rate must be taken as evidence of the demands of the borrowers being constantly greater than the supply which could be obtained to satisfy them; *it is also a proof of the quick and productive return* which there was a probability of making in some way, that the principal sum was employed, whatever way it might have been: for in this point consists another of the main difficulties.' (P. 74-)

That the high rate of interest is a proof of the quick and productive return, which there was a probability of making, seems to us, in this case, to be very far from correct reasoning. Because the return is quick and productive, and therefore certain, shall a higher rate of interest be demanded than when it is uncertain and precarious? On the other hand, it may be urged that, as in the lender's possession the money would have made a large return, he must receive a compensation for the loss of it that is proportioned to the gains which he foregoes. By the latter argument, we must assume that great profits must have been made in other modes than by loan, which is contrary to all the historical evidence that we have on the subject: but, if we suppose that the high rate of interest was a consequence of the hazard of the principal, our arguments will be consistent with one another and with the information of history. Indeed, this is the view which Mr. Banks himself takes of the subject a few pages afterward; where, speaking of the wealth sometimes acquired by the fortune of war, he says that 'the high rate of interest was no more than a natural consequence of lending upon the imperfect security of such gambling transactions.' It does not seem to us, after having considered this question in the light in which we have viewed it, that the reduction by the Decemvirs of the rate of interest to one per cent. was, as Mr. B. regards it, an absurd or impracticable regulation. Such, indeed, might have been the case if money could have been employed in trade, or otherwise, so as to have produced great returns: but, if a loan were the only means by which interest could be gained, it was neither absurd nor impracticable to limit the rate of that interest, because the lender would have a profit in any case; for, unless the money had been advanced, it must have remained wholly unproductive. A law to this effect would indeed have been both just and politic, as it would merely have prevented the rich from converting the miseries of their fellow-citizens into a source of exaction and oppression; while it remained optional with the lender whether he would hazard his principal for merely a small return.

The ensuing speculations are curious :

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‘ The citizens of Rome were not braver than the inhabitants of the adjacent territory, whom they were so constantly fighting, and so slow in subduing. The balance of victory and defeat during those protracted struggles was probably more equal than the historians admit; but allowing to the Romans every triumph which they claim, the constancy and perseverance of those who bore up against such repeated reverses, demonstrated that the body of those nations was sound and vigorous if a head could have been found to take charge of it. To the Gallic tribes the Romans were certainly inferior in courage and military fame; and from the fatal day of Allia until the decisive victory of Marius, the name of those invaders was never heard at Rome without terror and consternation: they reputed every other victory, as Sallust expresses it, to be within their grasp, but that in fighting against the Gauls it was a contest not for glory, but for existence. What was it then which brought them through all their difficulties? The answer which has been already anticipated is to be found in the same reflecting and profound historian, who declares it to be his opinion after much consideration that it was the ability of a small number of extraordinary men, which had surmounted every obstacle, and conducted his countrymen to that greatness of which he was an eye-witness in the age of Pompey and Cæsar. With the several emergencies which occasioned the dangers these eminent characters arose to encounter them, and the interval between them was never so long as to leave the republic destitute of resources.’ (P. 168.)

If, with Mr. Banks, we admit that at no period was Rome destitute of men capable of retrieving her fortunes in adversity, and forwarding them in prosperity, while the surrounding nations became subjected to her power through the want of such protectors, will it not be a just inference that, as a nation, the Romans were more brave than their enemies? Or must we say that, with the exception of these few eminent characters, the Romans were on a level with their neighbours. It is not, however, fair to confine excellence and talents to those only who happened to have the opportunities of displaying them: — we are justified in supposing that the great proportion of her citizens, had their lot so fallen, would have filled the offices of the state with the same constancy, valour, and magnanimity, which were displayed by the statesmen and heroes whose names and achievements are preserved in her annals.

In a ‘civil and constitutional’ history of a people, we cannot expect to find much information on the subject of their arts and literature. The spirit of the Romans was not, like that of the Greeks, literary, but essentially warlike. Indeed, the condition of the state, during four or five hundred years after its foundation, precluded the cultivation of letters;

and those studies, which require uninterrupted leisure and undisturbed repose, were scared away by the noise of the military preparations which continually resounded through the city, and by the frequent alarms which sometimes assailed even the very gates of Rome. Placing its existence on the sword, the government favoured that rough and uncultivated character, which fitted the citizen rather for the toils of the camp than for the shades of the Lyceum; and on this account such pursuits were discountenanced and forbidden. If this policy, however, was well suited to the early views of the republic, the period at length arrived in which the rising spirit of improvement could be no longer restrained; when the augmented power of the state rendered the military profession the occupation of only one class of the citizens, and thus afforded leisure to the rest; and when the conquest of Greece had opened to them the sources of learning in which that country so amply abounded. A stronger example of this powerful change cannot be found than in the account which Plutarch gives of the arrival of Carneades the academic, and two other philosophers, from Greece, in the character of ambassadors. Carneades was a man of great eloquence, an art which possessed much influence over the Romans; and it was quickly rumoured through all the city that a surprising Greek had arrived, who surpassed the rest of mankind in wisdom and knowledge. This idea inspired the Roman youth with such a love of learning and improvement, that, renouncing all other employments, they ran (as it were) enthusiastically mad after the study of philosophy; and so great a disturbance did this circumstance occasion, that Cato moved the senate that the strangers should be dismissed from the city. Although Mr. Bankes has said very little on the literature of the Romans, his remarks on their language are well worth attention:

‘ It is difficult to assign a reason for a maxim which is first brought under notice about this period by a petition from the people of Cumæ, that they might be permitted to use Latin as their common language, and in their sales by auction, and in all commercial dealings. Their request was granted in this instance. But the general rule continued in full force to a much later age, and seems only to have been dispensed with under special circumstances of indulgence; for we find in Suetonius, towards the close of Augustus’s life, that when he was desirous of gratifying the people of Puteoli, he could not give them leave to make use of the Roman tongue and dress without the formality of a law; which was equally necessary to allow the Romans who were there to speak and dress as the Greeks. It might rather have been expected that a contrary system would have been adopted by a
people

people whose main object was to render their city the capital of the world, and to make every thing in the world Roman. But the effect which they probably aimed at naturally resulted from this principle of exclusion: their neighbours, long after becoming their subjects, were kept in a state of more complete separation from them than could have been supposed practicable, considering the relation in which they stood, and the constant intercourse subsisting between them. As a proof of this permanent distinction that prevailed with regard to the old Greek colonists in the south of Italy, it is curious to observe among the remains discovered there in our own times, how small a portion bears the least appearance of Roman origin; and among the numerous manuscripts there is scarcely a single line excepting in Greek.

There was a variety of tongues amongst the ancient inhabitants of Italy, descended probably from several different stocks under successive migrations from other countries; and many of these were not intelligible to each other. The people of Fidenæ, whatever their language was, did not in general understand the Roman tongue, excepting so far as it was comprehended by some individuals through the medium of the colonists settled among them. The Etruscan language also continued wholly distinct: it was learned as an accomplishment; and some of their older authors asserted that it was as commonly taught to boys in the fifth century of Rome, as Greek was in the days of Augustus. A language called Oscan was spoken in Samnium; and we read that during the long war with the people of that country, an occasion occurred in which the spies sent into the Samnite camp by one of the consuls were selected on account of their proficiency in that tongue. Dionysius, who bestows much pains upon an attempt to prove that the Trojan emigrants and all the others who settled in Italy derived their descent from different parts of Greece, affirms that the Romans preserved greater indications of that original than any other colonists who came from thence: he has also a remarkable passage concerning the language spoken by them; which he says was neither wholly barbarous, nor completely Greek, but mixed of both, the greater part being *Æolic*; and from these various mixtures, he observes, as a distinguishing peculiarity, that they did not pronounce all their words correctly. — He adds, in another paragraph, that during the time of their kings, they used such letters as were anciently written in Greece, and that a brazen column engraved with those characters under *Servius Tullius* still existed in his own time in the Temple of *Diana*. Of the books written by *Numa*, half were said to have been in Greek, and half in Latin; but it is not mentioned whether any difficulty occurred in comprehending the latter at the distance of five centuries from the age of their author. In the time of *Polybius*, the language spoken at Rome varied so essentially from that in which the earliest treaties with the Carthaginians were made, that they were hardly intelligible even to the Roman antiquarians of his day. He mentions having himself seen the three

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first of these treaties engraved upon brass in the Capitol.' (Vol. i. p. 366—370.)

To these remarks may be added the authority of Quintilian, who asserts that the old Latin was merely the Æolian dialect of the Greek tongue: — that of Tacitus, (Ann. xi. 14.) "*forma literis Latinis quæ veterrimis Græcorum, sed nobis quoque pauca, primum fuere;*" — that of Pliny, (Nat. Hist. vii. 58.) "*veteres literas Græcas fuisse easdem pene, quæ nunc sunt Latinæ; indicio erat Delphica tabula antiqui æris, quæ est hodie in Palatio, dono principum Minervæ dicata;*" — and that of Gibbon, (vol. viii. 5.) who admits the eight tables of brass at Cortona to be early Latin in the Pelasgic letter.

Mr. Banks has also given a slight account of the introduction of the drama into Rome, for the purpose of illustrating the disposition of the people at that period; and he has added a succinct notice of the early dramatists:

'A growing taste for poetry, which naturally sprung up with this tendency towards knowledge and refinement, fell equally under the censure of the same rigid moralist (Cato); of whom it is related that he reproved the consul M. Nobilior, when he took Ennius abroad as his companion, for carrying poets about with him into his province: but Cato at a very advanced age allowed himself the gratification which he denied to the public, and learned in private the language and studied the writings of those Græcian sages whom he had publicly proscribed.' (Vol. i. p. 384.)

This reprehension of the Consul by the rigid moralist is rather unaccountable, since Cato himself is reported to have brought Ennius to Rome, and to have studied Greek in company with him.

In the consideration of the important reformations meditated by the Gracchi, Mr. Banks does not seem to have allotted to the subject all the thought which it deserved. He has, however, the candour to concede to those great men a rectitude of intention; though their schemes of 'radical reform,' as he is pleased to term them, do not appear to meet with his approbation. It certainly would be unjust to doubt the patriotic views of these undaunted Romans. Their liberal and enlightened minds, — their education, such as had never before been bestowed on Roman youth, — the excellent precepts instilled into their hearts by the virtuous care of their mother Cornelia, — their rank and high alliances, being connected by birth or marriage with many of the noblest families of Rome, — all tend to discredit any suspicions on the honour and honesty of their conduct: — but the strongest proofs are contained in their actions; and until it can be shewn that to attempt to restore to the altered Romans of their day the

discarded maxims of their ancestors, to check the current of vice and degeneracy which was speedily overwhelming the republic, and to support democracy in a constitution founded on the principles of freedom, — until, we say, it can be shewn that acts like these were treason to the state, the Gracchi must be classed among those whose lives have been lost in the service of their country.

We may allow, indeed, with Mr. Bankes, that the time was past at which measures like these were calculated for being carried into effect. The glory of Rome was declining, shortly to set in despotism and blood. She was no longer the Rome of Curius and Fabricius, but the dispenser of luxury, the corrupter of her children, and destined speedily to become the mother of tyrants and of slaves. It was therefore a fruitless though a noble effort to attempt to save her from the ruin with which she was engirt, and to restore her to the glorious state of her youthful prime: — but the fate of nature prevailed, and she fell at last under the just consequences of her own vice and depravity. We were surprized to find that Mr. B. has termed the unjustifiable and brutal murder of Tiberius Gracchus ‘a very questionable homicide:’ a term almost as light as a senator of that day would have used.

We quote the author’s reflections on the death of Julius Cæsar:

‘The admiration which Cæsar’s great qualities naturally excite, and the misfortunes, confusion, and havoc which immediately followed his downfall, throw more than a doubt upon the soundness of Brutus’s judgment, if his high character for rectitude and integrity forbid the motives of that judgment to be questioned: it is impossible not to regret such a combination of circumstances, and not to condemn such a train of reasoning, as could persuade the most virtuous man in the empire, that it was his duty to become the murderer of the only man who was fit to govern it. The Roman constitution, if ever it deserved such an appellation, was worn out long before the age of Cæsar: his boyish days had witnessed the anarchy, turbulence, and proscriptions of Marius and Sylla; and his early manhood was hardly preserved from the scrutinizing resentment of the latter, against which there was no appeal. When the death of Sylla relieved the world from that reign of terror, the commonwealth remained destitute of any active principle, and wanted vigour to effect its renovation. The authority of Pompey soon became too domineering for a free state, though his moderation inclined him for a time to tolerate the semblance of it; but no sooner was his dignity encroached upon by a transient opposition of opinion in the senate, than, diffident of his own single strength, he took two coadjutors into partnership, and converted into a joint stock all the offices, territories, and revenues of the republic. The written law was at no time well calculated to
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secure personal liberty and the free exercise of civil rights, together with a due proportion of executive power; when, therefore, the wealth of the world, flowing in with a rapid tide, undermined or subverted the old bulwarks of morality, moderation, and zeal for the public, nothing was left sufficiently strong to resist the encroachments and assaults of corruption or violence. Cæsar's crime at the tribunal of his country was that of subverting the legitimate form of government; but how little resemblance of a commonwealth was left, and how little even of what remained was worth preserving! Had he established a free constitution, his merit would indeed have been rare and transcendent; but he must have created rather than restored, and have drawn from his own enlarged understanding a system of which he had never seen the model. He had beheld after he came into active life the fury of Catiline endangering the very existence of the state; and the life and death of Clodius almost equally fatal to the safety of the best citizens, and to the liberties of all; he had repeatedly experienced how inadequate the laws were to support the chief magistrates, to insure the freedom of elections, or to withstand a combination of powerful individuals. Ought he to have withdrawn from all concern in public affairs? Some other daring spirit less capable or less worthy might seize the helm. He had escaped Sylla; but would even his life have been safe under another usurper? Should he continue to administer the government to the best of his great abilities, and for the universal good of the empire? Such men as Cato and Cato's nephew immediately became his enemies; the most innocent and honest of mankind plotted his destruction with the dissimulation of hypocrites, and turned against him with the malignity of assassins.' (Vol. ii. p. 277—280.)

Surely this is not the best reasoning which Mr. B. is capable of producing to palliate the usurpation of a free government! Was Rome then so completely degraded, was every spark of antient feeling so completely extinguished, that her only resource was to throw herself into the arms of a tyrant? Oh! but he was a man of 'great qualities,' — the 'only man fit to govern Rome.' More dangerous and fatal then to Rome were that excellence of character, and those superior qualities, in the example which he gave of the use of them. Had he, like Tiberius or Caligula, been deaf to the cries of suffering humanity, the yoke of despotism at that period might have been cast off, the seeds of the poison-tree of tyranny might have been destroyed, and Rome would probably never have groaned under the unspeakable enormities of the succeeding emperors. 'Ought he to have withdrawn from all concern in public affairs?' Ought he, we say, to have trampled on the expiring liberties of his country? 'Some other daring spirit, less capable, or less worthy, might seize the helm.' So, then, it is our duty to be the first to commit a crime, lest
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some greater villain should anticipate us, and aggravate the wickedness with circumstances of peculiar atrocity? — Next comes the most worthless plea of all; ‘Would his life have been safe under another usurper.’ What! for the sake of personal security should he become the tyrant of a free land! If such a motive could have entered the mind of Cæsar, it would only have shewn the weakness of his judgment, since the dreadful event proved the fallacy of such reasoning.

Far be it from us to defend or palliate the wretched and cowardly doctrine of assassination: but let the crime rest with him who has been the cause of it. When a man sets himself above the laws, he cannot be surprized, and he can scarcely call it unjust, if his ambition be checked by means which the laws do not sanction. They who slew Cæsar, however, adhered to one of the most venerable and revered constitutions of their state, (whatever be its moral propriety,) which enjoined every citizen to arm himself against the life of a tyrant and usurper. In the earlier times of the republic, we have an instance of this law being carried into effect, and we cannot forbear to give Mr. Bankes’s spirited relation of it.

‘On the first appearance of the Dictator Cincinnatus in the forum, he instantly summoned, by his Master of the Horse, C. Servilius Ahala, the suspected knight, to appear before him. Mælius withdrew among his partizans, imploring their assistance; when an officer of the Dictator laid hold on him, from whom he was rescued by those about him; but Ahala, following and pressing upon him, laid him dead in the midst of the crowd, and returned to Cincinnatus covered with his blood. The Dictator called together the tumultuous assembly, harangued them boldly in justification of Ahala, and concluded by declaring that all the memorials of such a traitor as Mælius should be destroyed, and his property confiscated.’ (Vol. i. p. 131.)

At the conclusion of the second volume, we find these additional observations on the policy of Julius Cæsar:

‘It is not likely that Cæsar entertained any serious thoughts of restoring the commonwealth; but it is very probable that he consulted his friends about it, and desired them to give him their opinions without reserve, which are set forth in great detail and excellently argued by Dion. This was a popular topic to keep in view; even the military who had contributed so much to subvert the constitution were fond of the name; and Anthony took an oath before his soldiers, that if he conquered he would re-establish it within two months. But if Cæsar had entertained dispositions really favourable to this object, his own experience and reflection must have taught him, that the materials out of which
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alone a free state can be constructed and supported were wanting ; and he therefore perhaps conferred the greatest benefit upon his country which it was at that time capable of receiving, by using that power which he had obtained by the most questionable means, with moderation and justice.' (Vol. ii. p. 380.)

Here, again, we find the doctrine of expediency opposed to the immutable laws of justice and right. Can they be weighed in the same balance ?

The principal merit of the work before us is, that it is written in a spirit of inquiry and examination, which throws much light on subjects that have hitherto been greatly neglected : but it is also intitled to the high praise that its author does not undertake summarily to dispose of all the difficulties with which he meets : — he has no favourite hypothesis, — no theory to the support of which every thing is sacrificed, — but all is stated openly and candidly, and discussed with fairness and impartiality. If history has left facts doubtful, he does not substitute his own speculations ; and, if opposing circumstances cannot be reconciled, he does not attempt ingeniously to torture them into agreement. His remarks are in general sensible and judicious : he is extremely happy in the relation of the well-known incidents of Roman story ; and facts, with which we have been conversant from our earliest childhood, here bear in some degree the semblance of novelty. His style, also, is unaffected, and well adapted to the subject ; though we must protest against the admission of some phrases, which partake of modern licence and parliamentary cant. Mr. B. has not quoted any authorities : was he too idle, or did he fear that the references would mar the fair appearance of his milky page ?

We must add, in conclusion, that Mr. Bankes has undoubtedly rendered a service to the literature of his country, and conferred material obligation on the philosopher and the scholar. We thank him for leading us back to the contemplation of a history which has so frequently delighted us, but which can never lose its charm ; — a history of the unconquerable energy of the mind, of towering ambition, of the most splendid achievements and the most complete success, yet terminating in the saddest and most desolate view of humanity, — tyranny triumphant over a land in which freedom had once fixed her throne.

ART. II. *Remarks on Antiquities, Arts, and Letters, during an Excursion in Italy, in the Years 1802 and 1803.* By Joseph Forsyth, Esq. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 480. 15s. sewed. Murray.

ART. III. *A Journey to Rome and Naples, performed in 1817; giving an Account of the present State of Society in Italy; and containing Observations on the Fine Arts.* By Henry Sass, Student of the Royal Academy of Arts. 8vo. pp. 400. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

IT was so long ago as the year 1801 that Mr. Forsyth departed from the English shore, with the view of making the excursion which furnished materials for the work before us, but without having at that time any intention of submitting the result of his researches to the notice of the world. Whatever may have been the motive which subsequently induced him to alter this part of his original plan, we have reason to congratulate ourselves on his having acted in compliance with it: nay, even if one of the prevailing causes may be found in the author's ultimate and disastrous captivity in France, we are almost afraid (such is our selfishness on this point) that our compassion for the exile might materially suffer from the recollection of the effect attributable to his misfortune. It requires no great degree of penetration, and indeed the perusal of a few pages of his work is amply sufficient, to discover that Mr. Forsyth is a man of an enlarged and comprehensive mind; his observations are for the most part shrewd and original; his ideas, with but few exceptions, are just and sagacious; and the language, in which they are embodied, is usually classical and chaste. We observe indeed a terseness in his mode of expression which has struck us as peculiarly happy, and, considering the taste of modern times, peculiarly rare. Without any affectation of conciseness, or the least appearance of an elaborate or studied phraseology, his ideas are uniformly clothed in the fewest possible terms, and those are always the fittest and the best. We must also not omit to mention, among the numerous features of the work which deserve approbation, that the author is seldom, if ever, found prattling of himself and his own affairs, but seems always to think and write for the benefit and instruction of his readers. He does not dwell on things of trifling interest: we have no hair-breadth escapes, no tedious journeyings more tedious still in the narration, no sad vicissitudes of wind and weather: it is seldom that we are again introduced to the traveller after we have once taken leave of him at the commencement of his tour, but we are from that time in-

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dulged only with the more interesting observations of the antiquary, the scholar, and the man of the world.

The first extract which we shall make, in justification of this preliminary criticism, will be taken from the author's remarks on the celebrated contents of the Florentine gallery. Though he is avowedly little versed in the technical minutiae of the arts of sculpture and painting, it is yet interesting to observe the impression made by such a collection on a strong and enlightened understanding :

* The first things that strike you * in the gallery itself, are some glaring Madonnas painted on wood by Greek artists in the tenth and eleventh centuries. These pictures are uniform ; the drapery of the Virgin is dark, but bespangled with stars ; the posture of the child the same in all ; for when the divine maternity was acknowledged at Ephesus, the child was then first coupled with the Madonna, but the mode of painting both was fixed by the ritual. Painting in that age was satisfied with producing mere forms, and did not aspire at expression or movement. Conscious of her own weakness, she called in the aid of gold, and azure, and labels, and even relief ; for these pictures are raised like japan-work. They present all the meagreness, the angular and distinct contours, the straight, stiff parallelism of attitude, the vacant yet pretty little features, which are common to the productions of unenlightened art : and are more or less perceptible in the Egyptian idol, the Gothic statue, the Indian screen, and the Chinese jar.

‘ The paintings of this gallery run strangely into series — a series of Florentine portraits classed on the ceiling in compartments of the same form — a series of 850 illustrious foreigners running on the same level in frames of the same size — a series of 350 painters crowded into the same apartment — a series of the arts — a series of the elements, all exact to the same dimensions. Such uniformity betrays the furnishing taste of a tradesman. Method and multitude are ever remote from excellence. What a disparity of forms in a select cabinet ! There every picture is a separate unit, and bears no relation to its neighbour. As to the technical merit of those pictures, I leave such metaphysics to the initiated. Painting I value only as it excites sentiment, nor do I ever presume to judge beyond the expression or story ; convinced by the absurdities which I have been so often condemned to hear, that the other parts of the art are mysteries to all but the artist.

‘ The series of imperial statues and busts is the most valuable of all, as they shew the iconography, and the state of sculpture from Julius Cæsar down to Constantine. Some individuals re-appear in several busts, and in busts not always similar. No difference of age could reconcile to me the three which are called Julia, daughter of Titus. Those of Commodus are not very like each other, nor does any one of them breathe the terrors and threats remarked by Herodian. Several doubts may be started on the sculpture of

* We object to this colloquial familiarity.

this gallery. The Julius Cæsar which begins this series bears no great resemblance to his effigy on coins. A head which had been long called Cicero now passes for Corbulo; from its likeness, I presume, to the two Gabine busts, which can plead only local probabilities for the name assigned to them. Two of the cross-legged Apollos have been lately degraded into Genii, and their swans into geese.

Physiognomists, who can read sermons in stones, find a world of character and history in those imperial heads. They can discover habitual paleness in the face of a Caligula, can see the slaver dripping from the lips of a Claudius, and the smile of yet unsettled ferocity in a Nero. All this, I confess, sounds mystical to me. Some heads are certainly marked with appropriate mind; but in others, as Titus, Didius, Septimius Severus, I looked for the men in vain.

None of those heads are absolutely entire. Most of their noses and ears have been mutilated. Indeed, such defects were common even in ancient galleries. An imperial nose, however, may be always authentically restored, as it appears on coins in profile.

In several busts the flesh is of white marble and the drapery of coloured; but neither Homer nor Virgil, nor Phidias, nor Canova, nor the Venus which this Gallery has lost, nor the Marsyas which remain, no authority can defend a mixture so barbarous. Sculpture admits no diversity of materials; it knows no colour; it knows nothing but shape. Its purpose is not to cheat the eye, but to present to the mind all the truth and beauty and grace and sublimity of forms. Did the excellence of a statue depend on the illusion produced, or on the number of idiots who mistake it for life, the Medicean Venus would then yield to every wax-work that travels from fair to fair.

I saw nothing here so grand as the group of Niobe; if statues which are now disjoined, and placed equidistantly round a room may be so called. Niobe herself, clasped by the arm of her terrified child, is certainly a group, and, whether the head be original or not, the contrast of passion, of beauty, and even of dress, is admirable. The dress of the other daughters appears too thin, too meretricious for dying princesses. Some of the sons exert too much attitude. Like gladiators, they seem taught to die picturesquely, and to this theatrical exertion we may perhaps impute the want of ease and of undulation, which the critics condemn in their forms.

After a somewhat amusing description of the *improvisatori*, the mysteries of whose art are quickly revealed by a short stay in Italy, Mr. Forsyth conducts us to the theatre; where we find him, to our surprize, dealing out such immoderate panegyrics on Alfieri, that we might suspect him to be in this instance departing from his usual good sense, and even forgetting his good old countrymen Shakspeare, Jonson, Otway, Dryden,

and Co. We are first, however, introduced to the two best actors of the day, Zanerini and Andolfati.

‘ Zanerini’s walk is the “padre nobile,” and surely in pathetic old characters he carries the exquisite and the forceful as far as they can exist together.

‘ Andolfati excels as a *caratterista*, and has dramatised for himself some passages in the life of Frederic II., whom he imitates, *tale quale*, in his voice, walk, and manner. But Andolfati’s merit rises far above mimicry; he can thrill the heart as well as shake the sides, and (what is more difficult than either) he can excite through long scenes that secret intellectual smile which, like the humour of Addison, never fatigues.

‘ The scene of their dramas lies so often in England, that they should learn to dress them more truly. I have seen Milord Bonfil appear in three different comedies, with a broad silver lace on the calf of his right leg to represent the garter. Their scenery often corresponds with their dress. Ill painted, ill set, inappropriate, rumpled, ragged and skit, it presents its strolling poverty in the face of the noblest architecture. No illusion can be attempted on a stage, where the prompter rises in the front, and reads the whole play as audibly as his strutting echoes, who, from their incessant change of parts, can be perfect in none.

‘ Benefits are allowed only to the chief performers. A *prima donna* is bound to call on all the gentry of the place, to solicit their attendance, and on the evening allotted to her, she sits greedily at the receipt of custom, bowing for every crown that is thrown on her tea-tray. The price of a ticket is but three Pauls, nor will this appear so low, when you consider the short roll of actors, their small salaries, their mean wardrobe, and the cheap composition of an orchestra, where noblemen volunteer their fiddles with the punctuality of hirelings.

‘ Every theatre in Tuscany has its epithet and device, as the *Immobili* and their windmill, the *Infuocati* and their bomb, &c. An epithet, device, and motto, were thought necessary here to every society, to every prince, to every academy, and to every academician.

‘ Previous to Alfieri, there was not a tragedy in the Italian language that would now draw an audience. The players, therefore, finding nothing else better adapted to the buskin, had recourse to Metastasio’s operas, which they still recite occasionally, omitting the airs. But verses composed for a composer of music are not the language of men speaking to men; nor can much passion be excited by speeches so antithetical, so measured, and so balanced as those of Metastasio.

‘ Hence tragedy is but seldom performed, and very few performers excel in that sphere. No tragic genius has yet appeared here equal to that of a boy, who died lately at the age of fifteen. This little prodigy was the son of Count Montauti, governor of Leghorn. Though born a dwarf, he had the perceptions of a hero; he could grasp the gigantic thoughts of Alfieri,

present them to their author in all their original grandeur, and force him, against his nature, to admire.

Alfieri is, next to Dante, the Italian poet most difficult to Italians themselves. His tragedies are too patriotic and austere for the Tuscan stage. Their construction is simple, perhaps too simple, too sparing of action and of agents. Hence his heroes must often soliloquise, he must often describe what a Shakspeare would represent, and this to a nation immoderately fond of picture. Every thought, indeed, is warm, proper, energetic; every word is necessary and precise; yet this very strength and compression, being new to the language and foreign to its genius, have rendered his style inverted, broken, and obscure; full of ellipses, and elisions; speckled even to affectation with *Dantesque* terms; without pliancy, or flow, or variety, or ease.

'Yet where lives the tragic poet equal to Alfieri? Has England or France one that deserves the name? Schiller may excel him in those peals of terror which thunder through his gloomy and tempestuous scenes; but he is poorer in thought, and inferior in the mechanism of his dramas.'

It is at Rome, perhaps, more than at any other place in Italy, that Mr. Forsyth appears to advantage. In this centre of decayed magnificence, this grand emporium of all the fruits of antient and modern art and genius, the powers of the mind are at once best displayed and most agreeably exercised. Amid the variety of interesting matter which is laid open to us on this spacious field of inquiry, we are almost at a loss to know what to select and what to omit. We will begin with the Pantheon.

'The cell and the portal of the Pantheon are two beauties independent of their union. "The portal shines inimitable on earth." Viewed alone, it is faultless. If the pediment, in following the pediment above, should appear too high from the present vacancy of its *tympan*; that *tympan* was originally full of the richest sculpture. If the columns are not all mathematically equal; yet inequalities, which nothing but measurement can detect, are not faults to the eye, which is sole judge. But the portal is more than faultless; it is *positively* the most sublime result that was ever produced by so little architecture. Its general design is best seen diagonally from the Giustiniani palace. In the obscene hole where it stands, you run more into the analysis of parts, the details of ornament, the composition of the entablature, the swell and proportions of the columns. Every moulding here becomes a model for the art: even the little still left round the bases of the ancient capitals is white with the plaster of casts.

'You enter the Pantheon by doors cased in bronze, which, whether made for Agrippa, or substituted by Genseric, appear to me at least of classical date, as their form is common on the ancient rillevos: not carved like those of the temple of Remus, but studded with a variety of bullæ and turning pivots. The pilasters within the jambs and the vacancy above betray an unfitness which

I should hardly expect in the original doors. A vacancy has, indeed, been remarked on some rilievos, but the temples there being rectangular required it for light. Not so the Pantheon.

'Here a flood of light falling through one large orb was sufficient for the whole circle of divinities below, and impartially diffused on *all*. Perhaps the interior elevation is beautiful where it should be grand: its Corinthian, though exquisite, appears too low for the walls, and made the Attic here a necessary evil. Had Adrian caught the full majesty of the naked dome, and embellished its walls with one grand order that rose to the origin of the vault; so full a support would have balanced the vast *lacunaria* of that vault, which now overpower us, and the whole temple would have been then "more simply, more severely great." Vast as they appear, those deep coffers are really not disproportioned to the hemisphere, and diminishing as they ascend, they stop just at the point where they would cease to be noble or entire. What barbarians could have white-washed so grand a canopy! If their rapacity tore off its ancient covering, they might have bronzed the surface exposed, and left at least the colour of their plunder behind.

'Though plundered of all its brass, except the ring which was necessary to preserve the aperture above; though exposed to repeated fires, though sometimes flooded by the river, and always open to the rain, no monument of equal antiquity is so well preserved as this *rotondo*. It passed with little alteration from the Pagan into the present worship; and so convenient were its niches for the Christian altar, that Michael Angelo, ever studious of ancient beauty, introduced their design as a model in the Catholic church.'

The Coliseum also is described with a skilful hand, and in a manner peculiarly characteristic of the author's original style.

'Happily for the Coliseum, the shape necessary to an amphitheatre has given it a stability of construction sufficient to resist fires, and earthquakes, and lightning, and sieges. Its elliptical form was the hoop which bound and held it entire till barbarians rent that consolidating ring, Popes widened the breach, and time, not unassisted, continues the work of dilapidation. At this moment the hermitage is threatened with a dreadful crash, and a generation not very remote must be content, I apprehend, with the picture of this stupendous monument. Of the interior elevation, two slopes, by some called *meniana*, are already demolished; the *arena*, the *podium* are interred. No member runs entire round the whole ellipse; but every member made such a circuit, and reappears so often, that plans, sections, and elevations of the original work are drawn with the precision of a modern fabric.

'When the whole amphitheatre was entire, a child might comprehend its design in a moment, and go direct to his place without straying in the porticos, for each arcade bears its number engraved, and opposite to every fourth arcade was a staircase. This multi-

multiplicity of wide, straight, and separate passages, proves the attention which the ancients paid to the safe discharge of a crowd; it finely illustrates the precept of Vitruvius, and exposes the perplexity of some modern theatres.

Every nation has undergone its revolution of vices; and, as cruelty is not the present vice of ours, we can all humanely execrate the purpose of amphitheatres, now that they lie in ruins. Moralists may tell us that the truly brave are never cruel; but this monument says "No." Here sat the conquerors of the world, coolly to enjoy the tortures and death of men who had never offended them. Two aqueducts were scarcely sufficient to wash off the human blood which a few hours' sport shed in this imperial shambles. Twice in one day came the senators and matrons of Rome to the butchery; a virgin always gave the signal for slaughter, and when glutted with bloodshed, those ladies sat down in the wet and streaming *arenæ* to a luxurious supper.

Such reflections check our regret for its ruin. As it now stands, the Coliseum is a striking image of Rome itself:—decayed—vacant—serious—yet grand;—half grey and half green—erect on one side and fallen on the other, with consecrated ground in its bosom—inhabited by a beadsman; visited by every cast; for moralists, antiquaries, painters, architects, devotees, all meet here to meditate, to examine, to draw, to measure, and to pray. "In contemplating antiquities," says Livy, "the mind itself becomes antique." It contracts from such objects a venerable rust, which I prefer to the polish and the point of those wits who have lately profaned this august ruin with ridicule.

Of Michael Angelo's Day of Judgment, we are glad to find the author speaking with candour, and daring to own himself rather awed into astonishment by the sublimity of the spectacle, and the contemplation of that which it is designed to pourtray, than gratified by the masterly execution of its particular features or the beauty of its general effect.

This immense work of the resurrection is too learned for me. I revered it rather as a monument in the history of Painting, and the cause of a great revolution in the art, than for any pleasure that it gave me. It includes too many pictures in one. The separating figure of Christ gives order and even symmetry to the upper region of the work; but plunging downwards, I was lost among gods and men—angels and demons—in air, on earth, and the waters under the earth. In this dingy field, you stop only to smile at singularities, such as Peter restoring the keys with grim reluctance, Dante's devils, his Minos, and his Charon diabolified.

How congenial the powers of the poet and the painter! Bold and precipitating, they dash on to their immediate object in defiance of rules and ridicule. One critic charges this mighty master with anatomical pedantry, stripping every thing to display the muscles. Another condemns the intermixture of epic and satire,

of-Scripture and profane fable : a third, the constant repetition of the same Tuscan figure : a fourth heaps on him 'all the sins of the sublime — gloom, harshness, negligence — the fierce, the austere, the extravagant — tension, violence, exaggeration. In short, had we any doubt of that one transcendent merit which could atone for so many faults, the very multitude of his critics would dispel it.'

One farther extract from Mr. Forsyth, and we have done. It is his description of Naples ; and this curious and interesting city he has sketched to the very life. The language, by the way, and indeed the manner altogether, remind us not a little of a similar portraiture of the same place by M. Petit-Radel.*

' Naples, in its interior, has no parallel on earth. The crowd of London is uniform and intelligible : it is a double line in quick motion ; it is the crowd of business. The crowd of Naples consists in a general tide rolling up and down, and in the middle of this tide a hundred eddies of men. Here you are swept on by the current, there you are wheeled round by the vortex. † A diversity of trades dispute with you the streets. You are stopped by a carpenter's bench, you are lost among shoemakers' stools, you dash among the pots of a *maccaroni*-stall, and you escape behind a *lazarone's* night-basket. In this region of caricature, every bargain sounds like a battle: the popular exhibitions are full of the grotesque ; some of their church-processions would frighten a war-horse.

' The mole seems on holidays an epitome of the town, and exhibits most of its humours. Here stands a methodistical friar preaching to one row of *lazaroni* : there, Punch, the representative of the nation, holds forth to a crowd. Yonder, another orator recounts the miracles performed by a sacred wax-work on which he rubs his *agnuses* and sells them, thus impregnated with grace, for a grain a piece. Beyond him are quacks in hussar uniform, exalting their drugs and brandishing their sabres, as if not content with one mode of killing. The next *professore* ‡ is a dog of knowledge, great in his own little circle of admirers. Opposite to him stand two jocund old men, in the centres of an oval group, singing alternately to their crazy guitars. Further on is a motley audience seated on planks, and listening to a tragi-comic *filosofo*, who reads, sings, and gesticulates old Gothic tales of Orlando and his Paladins.

* See M. R. Vol. lxxviii. p. 488.

† *Quà vidi' io gente, più che altrove troppa,
E d' una parte e d' altra con gran' urla
Percuotevansi incontro — DANTE.*

‡ *Professore* is a title given here to every performer, every fiddler, court-tailor, truss-maker, &c. ; just as that of doctor was given by the ancients to fencing-masters, archers, book-binders, &c.

* This

' This is a theatre where any stranger may study for nothing the manners of the people. At the theatre of San Carlo, the mind, as well as the man, seems parted off from its fellows in an elbow-chair. There, all is regulation and silence: no applause, no censure, no object worthy of attention except the court and the fiddle. There the drama — but what is a drama in Naples without Punch? * Or what is Punch out of Naples? Here, in his native tongue, and among his own countrymen, Punch is a person of real power; he dresses up and retains all the drolleries of the day; he is the channel and sometimes the source of the passing opinions; he can inflict ridicule, he could gain a mob, or keep the whole kingdom in good humour. Such was De Fiori, the Aristophanes of his nation, immortal in buffoonery.'

This is undoubtedly very spirited, and very accurate; qualities which, for the most part, as we have before observed, pervade the work. Yet, notwithstanding the general satisfaction which we have experienced in the perusal of these interesting pages, our partiality has not blinded us against those occasional blemishes which detract from the uniformity of its merits. Among these faults, we may mention that, though the observations of the author do not appear to be the result of long and intense meditation, so much as the rapid effect of forcible impressions on a vigorous and cultivated mind, yet he frequently betrays a want of ease and a want of nature in his mode of describing those impressions. We approve of his conciseness, but we should praise it more if it did not now

* Capponi and others consider Punch as a lineal representation of the Atellan farcers. They find a convincing resemblance between his mask and a little chicken-nosed figure in bronze, which was discovered at Rome; and from his nose they derive his name, "a pulliceno pullicinella!"

' Admitting this descent, we might push the origin of Punch back to very remote antiquity. Punch is a native of Atella, and therefore an Oscan. Now, the Oscan farces were anterior to any stage. They intruded on the stage only in its barbarous state, and were dismissed on the first appearance of a regular drama. They then appeared as *Exodia* on trestles; their mummers spoke broad Volscan; whatever they spoke they grimaced, like Datus; they retailed all the scandal that passed, as poor Mallonia's wrongs; their parts were frequently interwoven with other dramas, "consertaque fabellis (says Livy) potissimum Atellanis sunt. Quod genus ludorum ab Oscis acceptum;" and in all these respects the *Exodiarius* corresponds with the Punch of Naples.

' Yet if we return from analogy to fact, we shall find that master Punch is only a caricature of the Apulian peasant, a character invented, as some suppose, by the Captain Mattamoros, improved by Ciuccio the tailor, and performing the same part as the Fool or the Vice in our old English plays and moralities.'

and then degenerate into *quaintness*. His *sententiousness*, indeed, would altogether be more consistent with the principles of taste, if it did not occasionally savour of the pedant and the mannerist. It seems to us as if a desire to avoid common-place had induced the writer to give an indiscriminating preference to all that is *recherché*, and beyond the reach of the vulgar; and had thus caused him to miss the treasure which he seeks, by digging for it too deeply. The plan of the work, also, not being that of continued narrative, gives it a miscellaneous character; to which we should not object, if due care were observed in preventing it from assuming a desultory and unfinished appearance. — Towards the end of the volume, a kind of appendix or supplement is almost unnecessarily introduced. At page 400. we find ourselves again at Rome, and at p. 406. again at Naples, of which we conceived that we had long taken our final leave. With such few exceptions, however, and with a certain degree of reserve on some of the author's peculiar sentiments, we have had reason to be highly gratified by the entertainment which his labours have afforded us; and we feel pleasure in being able to consign the volume to our shelves, as a very agreeable and very fit accompaniment to the more extended tomes of Mr. Eustace.

Of Mr. Sass's publication, we are unable to speak in very flattering terms: for we are obliged to acknowledge that, having visited the country which he describes, and having perused with some attention most previous works on the subject, we have derived no information and but little amusement from his details. As an author, he is indeed very defective: being evidently inexperienced in the art of composition, as well as unacquainted with the principles of grammar. At p. 266. we have a specimen of his incorrectness: 'Stretched on the downy pillows of a gondola, enjoying the most luxurious ease, and gliding along the canals which intersect the city in every part, *was delightful*.' Again, at p. 269., 'If the government, a corporation, or any other body of men, project the execution of some great work, there are so many tricks played off by these people, and such scrambling to get the commission, evincing no small portion of meanness and cunning, that a man of real elevation of soul cannot submit to; consequently, nine out of ten of the great opportunities for exertion in art, are little better than thrown away.' This carelessness is rather more than we can contentedly endure, particularly as it is wholly unredeemed by any interesting or agreeable feature. What can we think of a work professedly 'containing observations on the fine arts,' when

we

we find ourselves conducted most circuitously and tediously to Rome and Florence, and dismissed from those renowned seats of art, genius, and learning, neither better nor wiser than we were at the time of entering them? Yet so it is: by a singular fatality, when we are expecting the most from the author, he seems universally the least disposed to gratify our curiosity. He is lost in admiration, when he ought to be describing the nature and the history of that which excites it: he generalizes all, and analyzes nothing; and he is apparently silenced by the very feelings which ought to make him speak volumes. The following is a fair specimen of this meagre fare:

‘Rome! — The subject is so overpowering that I know not how to begin; my mind is distracted by a thousand different thoughts — a thousand various feelings agitate me. If I could confine myself to its ancient state, what a glorious theme to dwell upon; but I am upon the spot — on the spot *only* — where it formerly stood — the illusion is dissipated — and floods of tears succeed each other when I find that Rome, with all its greatness, has vanished from the earth.

‘But I have seen St. Peter’s — St. Peter’s — contemptible — St. Peter’s cannot bear a comparison with the ruins of ancient Rome; how then can the sight of it compensate for the destruction of the other. Still more acute must this feeling be, when we know that not all the civil brawls; not all the ignorance and want of taste in the latter emperors; not all the rage and indiscriminate fury of the barbarians, nor the bigotry and fanatic zeal in the darker ages, have tended so much to the destruction of ancient Rome, as those families who, in their wretched feeling, would build themselves palaces by the spoliation of the finest monuments of Roman grandeur.’

So striking is the contrast which this publication presents to that of Mr. Forsyth! To make farther citations would be to prolong a task as tedious to our readers, as it would be painful to us. Where so many men of eminent attainments and learning had preceded his footsteps, it was perhaps difficult for Mr. Sass to tread the ground again, in a very novel or agreeable manner; and on this score we could readily have made every excuse: but still, we think, the antecedent labours of others might at least have served as guides to those who follow. The present mania for book-making is one of the prevailing follies of our age and nation; and we should not be faithful to our duty if we did not candidly declare, as we really think, that the volume before us is principally attributable to that corrupted source.

ART. IV. *The Electra of Sophocles.* 8vo. pp. 83. Printed at Belfast.

AFTER two entire English versions of the tragedies of Sophocles, the one by Francklin and the other by Potter, what are we to understand as the design of an author who now sends into the world the translation of a single play of this Greek dramatist? To have seen the whole works of Sophocles again metamorphosed into English verse would not have excited our surprize: it was not long ago that we encountered the fifth translation of the Satires of Juvenal; and indeed we know but few either of the Greek or the Roman classics, that have not enjoyed at different periods a plurality of English translators. For an isolated version of the *Electra*, therefore, unaccompanied by her usual attendants, we can account only on the idea of its being a preparatory step to the publication of an entire new version, and as it were a feeling of the pulse of public opinion before the exhibition at large.

Of the peculiar merits of the *Electra*, we shall say but little: to those of our readers who still retain any relish for the old Athenian drama, they are in all probability already well known; and to those who do not, our observations could scarcely afford entertainment or interest. It is with the translator and his version that our present business lies, and to them it shall be confined.

The first peculiarity which occurred to us, on a perusal of the few sheets under review, was the great metrical licentiousness which Mr. Drennan, whose name is subscribed to the preface, has allowed himself; not in the choruses, where it would have been just and proper, but in the dialogue and body of the play, where it is the peculiar law of the Greek tragedy to make no deviation from the regular measure of the iambic trimeter. In English blank verse, it is true, we have a certain degree of freedom in this respect, which may be justified by high authority; and the redundancy of one syllable has been deemed occasionally not only allowable, but even ornamental, inasmuch as it takes away from the monotonous insipidity of a long continuation of parisyllabic lines that are unenlivened by the aid of rhyme. It is seldom, however, that this freedom can be exceeded without doing violence to metrical propriety, and offending a delicate ear. In the following extract, we shall find lines of eight, ten, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen syllables, most unequally matched, and made to chime together in a most discordant peal.

‘ The

' The rich Mycæne dazzles our eyes : our hearts
Recall the place of Pelops, ever stained with blood,
From whence (thy father slain) I bore thee, boy !
Delivered by thy sister to these arms,
Which reared thee up to full maturity, ripe
As the time, which calls for noble vengeance.
Now, then, Orestes — now, Pylades — dearest of friends !
The hour is come to crown advice with action.
The light of morn hath just awaked the world
With charm of earliest birds, and night
Retiring, folds her starry robe.
Let us, then, abridge our counsels. We touch
The very crisis of our fate — 'tis now to do, or die !'

The former part of the first chorus, beginning *ὦ πάτερ ἀνδρῶν*, is tolerably faithful to the original, and is indeed perhaps the most favourable specimen that we shall be able to give of the author's qualifications for translating Sophocles : — but we must object to the word ' to,' in the fourth line, as entirely inappropriate; and an expression seldom introduced.

' Witness, thou blessed eye of day,
That wakes this earth with orient ray, —
Witness, thou soft-embracing air,
To lorn Electra's deep despair !
Witness, this bosom stained with blows,
And the diurnal round of unremitting woes !
Let watchings of the night attest,
And couch long strange to welcome rest,
How strong she holds, in love and hate,
The memory of her father's fate !
Not in a strange or savage land,
Not in the field, by foeman's hand,
Didst thou, dear father ! meet thy end,
But by thy wife, and by thy friend,
Now, partners in thy royal bed :
With battle-axe they cleave thy head,
Dividing it, with deadly stroke,
As woodman fells the forest oak.
And who now feels, or seems to feel,
The griding of that horrid steel,
Except Electra ? She alone
Still hears, still feels, thy mortal groan.

' While round that tomb where thou wert laid,
Stalks, unappeased, thy awful shade,
Electra shall thy fate bewail,
And heaven and earth her cries assail :
Cries, that shall meet the morning light —
Shall pierce the silent hours of night.
As the poor bird, with anguish stung
By brutal hand that robbed its young,

With

With wing incessant beats the air,
 In short, shrill shriekings of despair,
 My death-marked cry, at ev'ry close,
 Shall teach sad echo all my woes !

Throughout the remainder of this beautiful soliloquy, Mr. Drennan has taken such a liberty of translation that, had we not the original before us, for the purpose of comparing with it the efforts of his muse, we should be at a loss to discover the traces of the source from which they spring. The literal sense of the original may be thus given : " O house of Pluto and of Proserpine, O earthly Mercury, O adorable Goddess of imprecations, and ye Furies, the revered daughters of the Gods, who behold those who unjustly perish, and those who clandestinely violate the marriage-bed, come, lend your succour, revenge the murder of our father, and send my brother to me." This passage Mr. Drennan takes leave to translate as follows :

' From realms beneath, infernal skies,
 Gods of the lower world, arise !
 Prepare their long-expected doom ;
 Give powers and passions to the tomb,
 And let thy mighty vengeance tell,
 Heaven has its ministers in hell !
 The furies, chief — terrific maids !
 Whose scorpion whips pursue the shades —
 Arise ! arise !
 Answer, and aid the suffering cause ;
 Snatch Argos from the tiger's paws ;
 Restore Orestes ! in that word
 Be health, and hope, and home restored ;
 For now, with still increasing weight,
 Electra sinks beneath her fate.'

Against the ensuing lines, however, we have still heavier charges to bring ; since the author has not only entirely lost sight of the sense of the original text, but has suffered inattention to betray him into a decided violation of grammatical propriety. We need scarcely observe that the two final words of the last couplet, '*keeps*' and '*weeps*,' should be *keepest* and *weeppest*, — referring, as we suppose they are meant to do, to the 'all-suffering Niobe.'

' Tainted the heart, insane the head,
 Which can forget a parent dead :
 But to Electra, still be dear
 The love, and hope, and holy fear ;
 That shed a moonshine through the gloom,
 Which settles o'er her father's tomb !

All-suffering Niobe, thou art enshrined
 In sad Electra's mind :
 Thy human sorrows grow divine —
 Receive the worship due from mine,
 Who, through all changes, thy remembrance keeps,
 And, e'en in monumental marble, weeps.'

'A parent dead,' we should observe, may be supposed to mean a parent who has died a natural, not a violent death; and consequently the phrase fails to express the true sense of τῶν δίκτῳ διχομένων γονέων, the whole force of which turns on the word δίκτῳ, alluding of course to the murder of Agamemnon. The next four lines, beginning 'But to Electra,' have not the most distant resemblance to the original. What will the reader think when he is informed that the sense of the Greek is this? "But the sigh moaning bird, the messenger of Jupiter, who always laments Itys, Itys, is adapted to my feelings."

We are sorry to observe that this extreme licentiousness of version, this utter dissimilarity between the translation and its prototype, increases rather than diminishes as we advance; so that we at length find that we have taken our final leave of Sophocles, and have entered on a new performance: an imitation, indeed, of the same mighty bard, an unfinished and unfavourable representation of him, but no more like to him than he to Hercules.

Besides occasional grammatical errors, we remark a general want of classical taste and elegance about the language of Mr. Drennan, which is particularly to be regretted in a translator of such pure, chaste, and refined poetry as that of Sophocles. 'How can I call that *she* a mother?' is surely quite inconsistent with the dignified though agonized mind of Electra. 'She lies upon a *desperate* bed' is equally inadmissible for 'she lies upon the bed of despair.' The following, too, is a striking instance both of departure from the original sense, and of a species of phraseology peculiar to Mr. Drennan. Electra says that, if the murder of her father be suffered to remain unrevenged, farewell to all sense of shame and all piety among mortals:

ἔρροι τῶν αἰδῶς, ἀπάντων τ'
 εὐσεβία θνᾶτων·

which the translator anglicizes thus:

'Then let a *last, vast* fun'ral *pall*
 Cover, confound, and bury all.'

We could multiply examples of errors and failings such as these: but, if we have said sufficient to justify our censures, and

to acquaint our readers with the nature of the work in question, we would willingly excuse ourselves from making farther extracts. Indeed, we have already assigned to this little volume a greater share of our pages than its merit and importance demand. If Mr. D. has any intention of proceeding in the task of translating Sophocles, we should hope that he would not only be disposed to re-model entirely the present play, but to bestow a far greater degree of care, than he has here exhibited, on the genius of the antient drama, the laws of poetry, the rhythm of numbers, grammatical accuracy, elegance of diction, and above all on the strict letter of the text and the real sentiment of his author. When we consider how various and difficult of attainment are the requisite qualifications for a translator of Sophocles, — unquestionably the prince of tragedians amid the most refined and enlightened people of the world, in the most brilliant period of their history, — we are perhaps more surprised at the boldness than the failure of the present attempt: but Mr. Drenman, we apprehend, was either not sufficiently aware of the difficulties which he had to encounter, or estimated too highly his powers of overcoming them; without, perhaps, reflecting that the previous success of Potter would always be likely to throw any future rival into the shade, and cause him to enter the lists with his competitor at a very manifest disadvantage.

ART. V. *Laou-Seng-Urh*, or "An Heir in his Old Age." A Chinese Drama. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

ON several occasions, we have communicated our collections and thoughts on the curious subject of the Chinese Drama *, as well as the *literature* of China altogether; and the present little volume makes a valuable addition to our scanty stock of real knowledge, as to what we believe to be the equally scanty acquirements of this extraordinary nation. Yet in their second infancy, the Chinese seem incapable either of death or of regeneration: they neither disappear nor improve; and their great wall is not a firmer barrier against the incursions of the Tartars, than their obstinacy is against all *inoculation* from the genius or the arts of other kingdoms. They enjoy their natural disease of ignorance, and present the unique phenomenon of a stationary race of ingenious but contemptible bipeds.

Mr. Davis, the translator of the play before us, is 'a writer on the establishment of the East-India Company's

* See M. R. Vol. lxxvii. p. 276. Ibid. p. 500.; and Vol. lxxix. p. 89., for Weston's "Chinese Tales."

factory at Canton, and a son of the director of that name; a young man, who greatly distinguished himself at the College of Hertford, and one from whom much curious and valuable information may be expected on the state of *literature* of China.' So says the editor; and we must now farther extract the account of Laou-Seng-Urh, or "an Heir in his Old Age."

' The Chinese play, of which the following is a translation, was selected from an old collection, named *Yuen-jin-pě-tchung*; from which the "Orphan of Chao," translated into French in Du Halde's compilation respecting China, was also taken. It is well known, that on this last Voltaire grounded one of his best tragedies, "*L'Orphelin de la Chine*." A considerable portion of the plays of the Chinese consists of a sort of irregular verse, which is sung or chaunted with music. This is often very obscure in its import; and, as (according to the Chinese themselves) the gratification of the ear is its main object, sense itself appears sometimes to be neglected for the sake of a pleasing sound. That portion of their plays, on the other hand, which is merely spoken, is in the language of common conversation, and is in most cases as intelligible, as the other is sometimes obscure. In the following translation, the chief wish of its author has been to render *both* into English in such a manner as would best convey the spirit of the original, without departing far from its literal meaning. He cannot flatter himself that he has in every individual instance realised this wish, but thinks that he can safely answer for its general accuracy. Where doubtful passages occurred, the opinion of two or more natives was asked, and that sense adopted which appeared to be most consistent with the idiom of the language and with the scope of the original.

' A few passages, and they are but few, which were either grossly indecent, or insufferably tedious, have been purposely omitted in the translation.'

We add a paragraph from the prefixed 'Brief View of the Chinese Drama:'

' Whatever may be the merits and the defects of the Chinese drama, it is unquestionably their own invention. The only nation from whence they could have borrowed any thing, is that of Hindostan, from whence they imported the religion of Budh; but as we know nothing of the Hindoo drama, except from the single specimen of *Sacontala*, translated by Sir William Jones, in a manner, it is said, sufficiently *free*; and as that drama differs more from the Chinese than the latter from the Greek, Roman, English, or Italian, there is not the slightest grounds for supposing that the one was borrowed from the other. There is, indeed, a characteristic difference between them; the one adhering strictly to nature, and describing human manners and human feelings; the other soaring beyond nature, into the labyrinth of an intricate and inexplicable mythology.'

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After this eulogy on the Chinese drama, as 'adhering strictly to nature,' &c., who can read the subjoined scene, and not recollect Voltaire's repartee on the subject of *natural* composition, as related in Moore's Travels?

'Lew-tsung-sheu, the Old Man.

Le-she, his Wife.

Seaou-mei, his second Wife.

'Lew. I will spend a few days at my country house.

'Wife. I shall give directions to prepare a horse for you. — When you are gone, you need not concern yourself about the family affairs; as I am here, you may set your heart at rest on that score.

'Lew. I have a word to say to you, wife; may I venture to say it?

'Wife. Whatever you have to say speak on.

'Lew. Then I shall anxiously expect to receive a letter of congratulation from you. — What may *Seaou-mei* be compared to? — When I borrow a vessel from a neighbour, in order to procure wine at home, I wait only till the wine is obtained, and then return the vessel to its owner. *Seaou-mei* is now pregnant. Whether she produces a boy or a girl, the same will be your property. — You may then hire out her services, or sell her, as it best pleases you: the matter rests entirely with you.

'Wife. You say very right, husband.

'Lew. Wife!

'Wife. What have you to say?

'Lew. That girl, *Seaou-mei*, has sometimes been very troublesome to you, and I am afraid that she will continue to vex you. For my sake, however, when she deserves to be chastised, do you be satisfied with merely scolding her.

'Wife. It is unnecessary for you to instruct me: I know my duty.

'Lew. I wish to tell you, with regard to *Seaou-mei*, that if she offends you, and deserves a scolding, you may scold her as much as you please.

'Wife. You may be at rest; I tell you I know what to do.

'Lew. Wife!

'Wife. Well! something more about *Seaou-mei*?

Such are the 'human manners and human feelings' described in this Chinese drama; and these are the scenes which are not considered as being so different from the Greek, Roman, English, or Italian, as from the nonsense of the Hindus, the congenial neighbours of their authors! — We live in a strange age of criticism; and we doubt not that we shall soon be directed to admire these bold and NATURAL effusions of Asiatic genius, and to rate them much higher than the tame effusions of European art.

"*Ingenium miserâ quidâ fortunatius arte,*" &c. &c.

ART.

Art. VI. *Muscologia Britannica*; containing the Mosses of Great Britain and Ireland, systematically arranged and described; with Plates illustrative of the Characters of the Genera and Species. By William Jackson Hooker, F.R.S. A.S. L.S., &c. &c., and Thomas Taylor, M.D. M.R.I.A. and F.L.S., &c. &c. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

THE character, which the authors of the volume before us had already acquired in the botanical world, led us to expect a work of great merit when we entered on its perusal; and this preconceived opinion has been amply justified by a careful examination of the *Muscologia Britannica*. We consider it, indeed, as one of the most valuable additions which has been made to the science of botany for many years past. It is entirely limited to the description and arrangement of the Mosses of Great Britain and Ireland; without entering, in any manner, on the more hypothetical ground of the structure and uses of the parts of these interesting plants. In such a work, the authors remark,

‘It will not be expected that we should enter much on the subject of the structure of the mosses, or their modes of increase, and what have been considered by most authors as the organs of fructification. Indeed it is our opinion that too little is at present known on those heads to enable us to speak satisfactorily: and we are hoping to gather much new information on the subject from our very intelligent friend Mr. Drummond of the Cork botanic garden, who is prosecuting his researches with uncommon assiduity. We have adopted, for the most part, Hedwig’s terminology; but we have in general declined noticing the male flowers, as they are generally called, not only because we think their office or use is but imperfectly known, but because they are with so much difficulty to be discovered.’

To these remarks we cordially assent; indeed, we think that the whole of the more recent observations, respecting the supposed male parts of fructification, tend to throw a doubt over this part of the Hedwigan theory. We refer more particularly to the experiments of David Meese and Dr. Roth, and the observations of Sprengel.

In forming their genera, which are thirty-three in number, Mr. Hooker and Dr. Taylor have been guided in the first place by the presence or the absence of the fringe of the Peristome; secondly, by its simple or double nature; thirdly, by its configuration and direction; fourthly, by the lateral or terminal situation of the fruit-stalks; and, lastly, by the form of the Calyptra, whether dimidiate or entire like a mitra. Still, the difficulties attending an arrangement founded even

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on these clear principles have been felt, and are admitted by the authors.

'It is hard,' they remark, 'to pronounce if *Gymnostomum microstomum*, *G. fasciculare*, and *G. Griffithianum*, really possess what should be considered a Peristome. It bears the closest resemblance to that membranous ring which in an early state we see on the mouth of the capsule of *Weissia affinis* and *W. trichodes*; but in these two species it breaks into teeth in a more advanced state. In those mosses which make yearly shoots, these sometimes arise so near the point of insertion of the fructification as to make the fruit-stalk appear lateral, which is especially the case in the genus *Bartramia*. Even the calyptra of some mosses seems to be intermediate, having so slight a fissure that we are doubtful which we should call that of *Cinctidotus* and of *Splachnum*: sometimes in *Trichostomum*, besides the short fissure at the base, we see in *Trichostomum microcarpon* a single longitudinal cleft reaching three-fourths of the way up, making it appear a truly dimidiate calyptra. Such too is the case with *T. funale* [of *Schwaegrichen*. In this and indeed in all the previously mentioned cases, the question is to be decided by the habit of the plant which thus has its share of influence in the formation of genera.'

Respecting the discrimination of species, the authors have strong claims on our confidence; for they appear to have spared no exertions which could tend, in any degree, to remove the difficulties so often encountered in attempting to distinguish between species and mere varieties. They have received also the able assistance of many distinguished botanists, both of our own and of foreign countries; more particularly Dr. Swartz and Mr. Dawson Turner; — the former, eminent for his arrangement of Swedish mosses, the latter for his muscology of Ireland. The specific descriptions, though sufficiently full and distinct, are remarkable for their neatness and brevity; and the observations, which are added with the view of marking out points of difference and resemblance, are highly useful and often interesting. All the descriptions are given in English, from the very laudable motive of rendering the work accessible to those naturalists, whose situations in life have prevented them from becoming acquainted with the learned languages; and many of whom, as the authors well remark, pursue the study of the cryptogamous tribes with the most unwearied industry. For the information of foreign botanists, however, a synoptical table has been given in Latin, similar to that which Mr. Hooker has prefixed to his excellent Monograph of *Jungermannia*. In speaking of the publications cited in the course of the present volume, the authors mention a valuable
work

work which has appeared at Strasburgh, consisting of dried specimens of cryptogamic plants, intitled "*Stirpes Cryptogamicæ Vogeso-Rhenanæ, auctoribus Mougeot et Nestler.*" 'We regret,' they continue, 'that the work is so little known in this country; but we trust that this loss will be in some measure compensated by a similar one of the *Musci* and *Hepaticæ* of our own country, which will be published by Mr. Hobson of Manchester, to whom the muscology of this country is so much indebted. It will readily be seen how much superior these works must be to the best of plates, and they have also the advantage of being vended to the public at a much cheaper rate.'

On comparing the genera described by Mr. H. and Dr. T. with those of other writers, we find that they have admitted *Anictangium*, *Schistotega*, *Diphyscium*, *Conortomum*, *Cinclidotus*, *Didymodon*, and *Leucodon*. They have also established the three new genera *Zygodon*, *Anomodon*, and *Daltonia*; the last, which includes *Neckera splachnoides* of Smith, and *Neck. heteromalla* of Hedwig, having been named in honour of the Reverend Mr. Dalton, a distinguished fellow-labourer in muscology.

This work is illustrated by thirty-one admirable plates by Edwards, from drawings by Mr. Hooker. Three of them are occupied with the distinctive characters of the genera, and the remainder afford excellent representations of all the species that occur in Great Britain and Ireland. We have perused with feelings of peculiar satisfaction this valuable performance; and we recommend it in strong terms, to all those who have any desire of becoming acquainted with the muscology of these islands. We hope that the same industrious perseverance, and ingenious talents, which have thus luminously arranged and described our Mosses, will now direct their efforts to the remaining families of Cryptogamia, which are in still greater need of elucidation and arrangement.

ART. VII. *The Northern Courts*; containing Original Memoirs of the Sovereigns of Sweden and Denmark, since 1766; including the extraordinary Vicissitudes in the Lives of the Grand-children of George II. By Mr. John Brown, Author of "The Mysteries of Neutralization," &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 11. 1s. Boards. Constable and Co. Edinburgh; Fenner, London. 1818.

WE have repeatedly had occasion to praise the patriotic (vol. xxvii. p. 103.) and honest feeling (vol. xlix. p. 210., and vol. liii. p. 215.) of Mr. John Brown, who exerted himself

himself during the late war in stimulating his fellow-citizens to arm against French invasion; and who rendered important services to the Admiralty-courts, by helping to detect the *Mysteries of Neutralization*. The same independent and spirited turn of character pervades the volumes now before us; but the literary skill of Mr. Brown is perhaps less conspicuous than his moral worth. If he has new and curious information to produce, his comments are rather remarkable for virtuous indignation, than for that appreciatory criticism which scrupulously weighs the evidence adduced. He obviously wishes to do justice, but has not always the delicate tact which accomplishes it; and authorities are by him considered as proofs of fact, which demonstrate only the libellous disposition of the inditer.

The first document here adduced and translated is a secret history of the Court of Denmark, from the birth of Christian VII. to the autumn of 1772. It is divided into nine chapters, occupying 240 pages, of which the first consists of introductory reflections on the Danish revolution of 1660. The second describes Frederic V. who married, for his first wife, Louisa, a daughter of George II., by whom he had the prince afterward known as Christian VII.; and for his second wife, Juliana, a daughter of the Duke of Brunswick, by whom he had a son called Frederic. Juliana is, in this chapter, accused of an attempt to poison the Crown-prince Christian, in order to make room for the succession of her own son Frederic. — Sect. 3. digresses concerning Swedish history, but conducts the education of Christian to the period of his accession while a minor, and of his being betrothed to Matilda, sister of George III. The next section relates the reception of Matilda in Denmark, her coronation, the weakness and depravity of Christian VII., and his determination to travel, leaving the Queen at the head of a regency. — Chap. V. narrates the return of King Christian in a state of nauseous disease and despicable imbecility. His physician, Struensee, was necessarily consulted by the Queen; and thus gradually arose a too intimate connection between them. — Chap. VI. exhibits Count Rantzau, who had hitherto been intrusted with the practical government of Denmark, as thrown into the back ground by the new friends of the Queen, in consequence of which he made some approximations to the Queen-dowager Juliana. In the succeeding chapter we have the result of this coalition. Matilda was arrested, tried for adultery, found guilty, and divorced. She retired to Zell. Struensee was also found guilty of an adultery which by the law of Denmark was treasonable, and

and was beheaded. Count Brandt was accused, on very slight evidence, of intending injury to the King's life; whereas it was plainly the interest of Brandt and Struensee to preserve the King alive, because, with the custody of his person, they had a better pretext for governing in his name than they would have had under an ensuing regency. Brandt, however, was also adjudged to be guilty, and was executed.

In the eighth chapter, the writer explains the circumstances that led to a breach between Juliana and Count Rantzau, in consequence of which he was disgraced, and indirectly banished. He then attempted and accomplished something like a reconciliation with Matilda, to whose fall he had principally contributed. — We have next a description of the Danish court after the death of Struensee. Juliana and her son retained the efficient power, until the son of Matilda was of age to claim a legal seat in the council. With the advice of Count Bernstorff, he advanced this claim on his confirmation: it was acknowledged, and the cabal of Juliana was set aside. It is a very strong proof that Juliana had made no attempts on the early life of Christian VII., that she suffered his heir to grow up in safety, while she possessed supreme power.

With whom the composition of this eventful and interesting history originates, Mr. Brown does not appear anxiously to have inquired. From its general tenor, we deem it to have been written under the immediate direction and influence of Count Rantzau, and probably by Ernestus, the favourite valet of Struensee, who was afterward engaged by Rantzau; and this supposition will explain the violently bitter efforts to blacken Juliana, by imputing to her first an attempt to poison Christian VII. in his infancy, and afterward some seductions still more incredible. Count Rantzau had been used, outwitted, and cast off by Juliana. Such a supposition will also account for the general care of Struensee's reputation, who was originally the friend of Rantzau, and yet for the improbable charge that he and Brandt were forming designs against the life of the King. Rantzau had publicly imputed to them such designs, in order to justify the calling out of the army which he commanded; and therefore his secretary adheres to the assertion. Lastly, on this supposition we may also account for the minute knowledge and extravagant solicitude about watches, waistcoats, trinkets, and small clothes, which pervade every part of the narrative. Only Struensee's valet could thus specify his dress on every particular occasion.

Count Rantzau retired ultimately to Avignon; where he was assassinated, according to this writer, by some zealous partizan of Matilda, but, in our judgment, more probably by some adherent of Juliana. These incidents have naturally a very romantic character; which is occasionally heightened in the narrative at the expence of truth, where any little awkwardnesses were to be concealed: they are by this time well adapted to become the prey of the drama, and will furnish to the northern poets excellent themes of tragedy.

The next grand document, provided by Mr. Brown, is a secret history of the Swedish court from the birth of Gustavus III., or rather from the death of his father in 1771, to the deposition of Gustavus IV. in 1809. This paper approaches much nearer to impartial and to trustworthy history than the former, but it does not so frequently betray the opportunities of the author to get a peep behind the scenes: indeed, it is scarcely intitled to the name of secret history, but is a fair, regular, and sufficient account of the last two reigns.

The chapter here called the tenth, but which ought to have been numbered as the first of a new series, treats of the Swedish constitution, and of the oligarchy which over-awed Adolphus Frederick. The eleventh relates the accession of Gustavus III., and describes his fine taste, his Italian dissimulation, his admirable eloquence, his personal courage, and his criminal propensity to Greek love. The twelfth relates some bickerings which arose between the King of Sweden and the Empress of Russia; and with this chapter the first volume terminates.

Volume II. opens with a remarkable chapter, called the first, although it is the fourth of the Swedish series; in which it is pretended that Gustavus III., aware of his own indifference to women, recommended to his wife a *cavalier servente*, who is here named, and who was known to be the father of the heir to the crown. It is averred that the whole royal family, the King's brother, and others, were privy to this inoculation of the royal stem with a plebeian graft; and that it took place with the concert and approbation of all the parties interested. This scandalous story has somewhat the appearance of an after-thought, suggested to lessen the odium of deposing Gustavus IV.; and therefore it should be read with caution.

The second chapter narrates a war between Sweden and Russia, in which the King's friend Baron Armfelt is charged with a traitorous leaning to Russian interests. — Chap. III. continues the war in Finland, and adverts to the policy of the
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the British cabinet in this instance, which is explained (p. 151.) on the authority of the late Mr. William Augustus Miles, in a note of some peculiarity. The Swedish senate, much out of humour with the encroaching and arbitrary spirit of the King, gave considerable encouragement to the principles of the French revolution, against which Gustavus III. had as strong an antipathy as Mr. Burke. The controversy led to a conspiracy, in which some important persons were concerned, especially Ankarstroem, who shot the King at a masquerade. This scene is finely penned.

‘ The King’s surgeons having examined the wound, and the direction in which the pistol had been fired, saw at once how small was the chance of their royal patient’s recovery. During this operation that was excruciatingly painful, the King displayed that intense fortitude which few mortals ever possessed in a higher degree. As the surgeon applied his probe, the King thought his hand shook: suppressing the sense of pain, he said with a firm voice, “ Do not suffer your sorrow to affect your hand! Remember, Sir, it is not possible I can survive if the balls are not extracted.” — The surgeon paused a moment, as if to collect all his courage, and extracted a ball and some slugs. On his way from his palace to the opera-house a few hours before, Gustavus stepped lightly down the broad flights of granite stairs to the vestibule below. He was now carried slowly back, stretched on a litter borne on the shoulders of grenadiers, whose slightest motion gave him inexpressible pain. Like the palace itself, the grand stair-case is of stupendous dimensions. The massive balustrades are composed of polished marble; the broad steps of hewn granite; and the ornaments of colossal proportions, finely drawn and executed, are in strict conformity to the vast and beautiful outline of this grand edifice. The King’s unwieldy state-coach, with a triple row of guards on either side, might, apparently, have ascended. Although the portals were closed as soon as the King had entered, and none but courtiers and soldiers admitted, and even those not without selection, the whole of the colossal stairs were crowded to excess. Not a few of the ministers were clad in state dresses; and most of the courtiers and household officers still had on the fanciful robes worn at the fatal masquerade. This great diversity of splendid costume, the melancholy state of the King, stretched on the bier, lying on his side, his pale face resting on his right hand, his features expressive of pain subdued by fortitude, the varied countenances of the surrounding throng, wherein grief, consternation, and dismay were forcibly depicted; the blaze of numerous torches and flambeaux borne aloft by the military; the glitter of burnished helmets, embroidered and spangled robes, mixed with the flashes of drawn sabres and fixed bayonets; the strong and condensed light thrown on the King’s figure, countenance, litter, and surrounding group; the deep, dark masses of shade that

seemed to flitter high above and far below the principal group, and the occasional illumination of the vast and magnificent outline of the structure, formed, on the whole, a spectacle more grand, impressive, and picturesque, than any state or theatrical procession, on the arrangement of which the tasteful Gustavus had ever been engaged. In the midst of excruciating agonies his eyes lost not their brilliancy, and his finely expressive features displayed the triumph of fortitude over pain. Terrible and sudden as was this disaster, it did not deprive him of self-possession; he seemed more affected by the tears that trickled down the hard yet softened features of the veterans who had fought by his side, than by the wound that too probably would soon end his life. As the bearers of the royal litter ascended from flight to flight he raised his head, evidently to obtain a better view of the grand spectacle of which he formed the central, and principal object. When he arrived at the grand gallery level with the state apartments, he made a sign with his hand that the bearers should halt, and looking wistfully around him, he said to Baron Armfelt (who wept and sobbed aloud), "How strange it is I should rush upon my fate after the recent warnings I had received! My mind foreboded evil; I went reluctantly, impelled as it were by an invisible hand! — I am fully persuaded when a man's hour is come, it is in vain he strives to elude it!" After a short pause, he continued, "Perhaps my hour is not yet arrived; I would willingly live, but am not afraid to die. If I survive, I may yet trip down these flights of steps again; — and if I die — why then, inclosed in my coffin, my next descent will be on my road to the Gustavianska graf i Riddarholm Kyrkan."* Gustavus spoke slowly, and in a low tone of voice. The pause was awful: every one seemed anxious in the extreme to catch a view of his person, or even the most distant murmur of his voice, and not a tearless eye was to be seen. Several of the principal characters holding a torch in their left hand, threw their cloaks over their face with their right to conceal their excessive emotion. Gustavus was, perhaps, the most collected of the motley throng; and as soon as the violence of feeling had a little subsided he gave the signal to proceed. The lofty folding doors of the grand saloon were then thrown open, which were closed as soon as the principal persons had passed within, and the mournful cavalcade proceeded through the magnificent suite of state apartments to the royal bed-chamber, where the litter was gently rested, and the King carefully lifted to the couch whence he arose no more!

Chapter IV. praises Gustavus III. as a most tasteful patron of the fine arts, and as the affable companion and personal friend of every man of talents who was introduced to him. If he was politically a despot, and aimed at superiority in the state, his philanthropy rendered him the equal of his

* To the Gustavian Mausoleum in Riddarholm Church.
associates,

associates, among whom he lived like another Augustus. In the notes attached to this chapter, many useful corrections occur of the Swedish tourists; and a splendid panegyric on the sculptor Sergel, and the poet Edlercrantz.

The fifth chapter describes the government of the Regent, Prince Charles; which appears to have been conducted in the most liberal, tolerant, just, moderate, and humane spirit, and to have conciliated all parties. This disinterested Prince has more nearly realized the idea of a patriot-king, than any other contemporary sovereign. Aware of his nephew's illegitimacy, he kept the secret faithfully during the entire minority, and resigned to him without reluctance a throne for which he had recovered the national popularity: but, when the insane tendency of this nephew became dangerous to the commonwealth, he proclaimed the secret, moved for his deposition, accepted supreme rank in the hour of difficulty and danger, and again laid it down at the feet of the people as soon as a fit sovereign could be elected.

A sixth chapter closes the work: in which Mr. Brown states (p. 348.) that he was delegated by the patriotic party to propose to Mr. Perceval, then prime minister of Great Britain, to offer the mediation of this country between the Swedish contending interests; and to assure him that, in this case, they would nominate the Duke of Gloucester as Crown-prince of Sweden. Mr. Perceval lost this fine opportunity of attaching Sweden permanently to Great Britain; and Bernadotte was nominated under the mediation of Bonaparte.

This work abounds with curious information; and, although it would have been better more distinctly to separate the translated matter from the interspersed commentary, yet it contains in a condensed form an eventful and entertaining chronicle, and fills up a remarkable chasm in the history of modern Europe.

ART. VIII. *Second Memoir on Babylon*; containing an Inquiry into the Correspondence between the ancient Descriptions of Babylon and the Remains still visible on the Site. Suggested by the "Remarks" of Major Rennel published in the *Archæologia*. By Claudius James Rich, Esq. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

WE must recommend our readers, before they enter on this article, to refer to our observations on Mr. Rich's former memoir; because, without such assistance, they may possibly find some of our present remarks a little obscure.

secure.* We resume the subject with great satisfaction: it possesses considerable interest, not with the scholar only, but in every inquisitive mind; and the unaffected modesty of the gentleman, who again brings it into public notice, is sure to engage his readers in a candid examination of his opinions, if it does not universally secure their assent to them. With regard to ourselves, we confess that we follow in his train; even though we incur, by such a confession, the heavy responsibility of differing from Major Rennell on subjects respecting which his learning and research are unquestionable. Inclined as we were to subscribe to Mr. Rich's opinions on a former occasion, we were forced to withhold our absolute assent to some parts of the hypothesis, which were rather inferred than expressed in his first memoir: but the present little volume has fully established us in the conviction, that his topographical notions concerning antient Babylon are founded on firmer grounds than those of any other modern writer with whom we are acquainted.

It is in a great measure to some observations made by Major Rennell on the former publication of Mr. Rich†, that we owe the tract before us; for, although the author advances his opinions with modesty, he is fully prepared to defend them with firmness. He professes to come the second time to the press with 'better information,' and with 'more matured opinions:' advantages which do not tend to weaken his former impressions, but to confirm him in the truth of them.

As we have adverted to the primary design of this publication, it will render the question more clear to notice the objections of the learned Major first: then to proceed to the answers returned to them; and subsequently to some other general elucidations of the subject afforded in these pages.

In the paper of the *Archæologia* specified in our note, Major Rennell professes to vindicate the truth of antient history, as well as his own account of Babylon in the "Geography of Herodotus," with which he conceives the newly advanced opinions of Mr. Rich to be at variance; and in furtherance of this object he pursues the following line of reasoning. We quote the sum of it from the present author.

'The Euphrates divided Babylon into two equal parts; one palace, with the tower of Belus, stood on the east of it, and the

* See Rev. for November, 1816, Vol. lxxx.

† "Remarks on the Topography of ancient Babylon, suggested by recent Observations and Discoveries of Claudius James Rich, Esq.; communicated to the Society of Antiquaries by Major Rennell."—*Archæologia*, 1817, Vol. xviii. Part ii. Art. xxiv. other

other immediately opposite it, on the west — each occupying central situations in their respective divisions; or rather, the palaces and temple together formed the central point of the city, and were separated from each other by the river. — Now, in my account of the ruins it is said that there are no remains on the western bank; therefore the river must formerly have run through the ruins described by me on the eastern side, so as to have divided them into two equal portions. But there are certain mounds laid down in my plan, which render it evident that the river could not have run in that direction. These mounds must consequently be referred to a town of more recent construction, of whose existence Major Rennel himself acknowledges we have no other evidence.'

The subsequent summary will shew not less clearly the nature and method of the reply to these objections.

'None of the ancients say on which side of the river the tower of Belus stood. The circumstance of there having been two palaces in Babylon is extremely questionable. There are no traces whatever on the spot, of any such change in the river as Major Rennel imagines. The supposition of the existence of a more recent town, merely for the purpose of getting rid of the difficulty, cannot be allowed in the absence of all historical and traditional evidence, when the appearance of the ruins themselves is decidedly against it. And finally, the descriptions of the ancient historians may be reconciled with the present remains, without having recourse to any such conjectures.'

In proceeding to fill up this outline of his reply, Mr. Rich commences with some remarks on the antient geographers, or rather on those historical writers who have incidentally introduced topographical matter; and on the system by which a forced testimony is often elicited from their works, by taking their words in the most strict and literal acceptation that they can possibly be made to convey: — a species of test, he conceives, which few modern writers, with their improved means, would be able to undergo. Nevertheless, he does not rest his cause on the strength of this remark, but contends that his hypothesis is much more forcibly supported by Herodotus, the only antient writer of any authority on the question, than Major Rennell seems to admit. The ground becomes much cleared before us by confining our attention almost exclusively to this one historian; and the reasons for regarding others who have transmitted accounts of antient Babylon as writers of very inferior importance, as far as this question is concerned, are tolerably conclusive. Diodorus and Strabo are in fact the only two who need be mentioned: but of these the former never visited the spot, and lived when the vestiges were possibly not much greater than they are at present. He is also notoriously hyperbolical in his descriptions,

tions, and cites from Ctesias; who does not himself say on which side of the Euphrates the temple of Belus stood. As an instance, too, of the incorrectness of this writer, it is evident that he confounds the Tigris with the Euphrates. The particulars in Strabo are of little importance to our question.

The description of Babylon by Herodotus will be found in his first book, from the 178th to the 183d section, both inclusive; and we do not think that our readers can form any very accurate opinion on the subject before us, without an attentive perusal of those few pages. We need scarcely say that the reference should be, if possible, to the work in its original language. It will be seen that the historian speaks of one palace only, and of the temple of Belus; that he does not state on which side of the river either of those edifices stood; and that he does not speak of the proximity of either the one or the other to the banks of it: but that he does state that the city was divided by the river; and that in one division stood the palace, and in the other the temple of Belus.

Ἐστὶ δὲ δύο φάρσέα τῆς πόλιος· τὸ γὰρ μέσον αὐτῆς πύλαμος διείργει, τῷ ὀνόματι ἔστι Εὐφρήτης. — κ. 1. λ.

Ἐν δὲ φάρσει ἐκατέρῳ τῆς πόλιος ἐλείχιστό ἐν μέσῳ, ἐν τῷ ἦεν τὰ βασιλῆα, περιβόλῳ τε μεγάλῳ καὶ ἰσχυρῷ. ἐν δὲ τῷ ἑτέρῳ, Διὸς Βῆλου ἱρὸν χαλκόπυλον. — κ. 1. λ. *

On the latter of these passages, Mr. R. observes that an attempt has been made to establish from it the fact, that the temple was exactly in the centre of one of the divisions, but that he does not see the necessity of adopting so mathematical a signification of the word μέσος; and, secondly, that, if such an interpretation be requisite, it wholly disagrees with the position assigned on the banks of the river by Major Rennell. We do not perceive that the words of Herodotus are liable to be misunderstood; or that we draw any 'forced testimony' from them when we say that they make it clear, at least, that each of these edifices stood somewhere about the centre of that division of the city to which each respectively

* This latter clause is cited by Mr. Rich, but he does not refer to some little difficulty which exists in construing it as it stands: it lies in the word ἦεν: — μὲν, corrigunt viri docti, say the commentators; and the passage becomes undoubtedly very clear by such an emendation, which is due, we believe, to Gronovius. Koenius, with great ingenuity, supposes the words to be ἐν τῷ ἐν, which accord well with the subsequent expression ἐν τῷ ἑτέρῳ. — Nevertheless, the general purport of the words is not to be misunderstood, even while they labour under a possible but not necessary error in one of them.

belonged. Even thus we do not surely confine the word μέγας to too strict or mathematical a meaning. With this view of the passage, we are a little surprized to see Mr. Rich observe, a few lines below: 'It appears, therefore, that the position of the tower of Belus in the centre of the city, or even of one of its divisions, is not clearly made out.' We conceive that, if credit may be given to Herodotus, it is clearly made out that the temple of Belus was *not* in the centre of the city; and that it *did* bear something at least approaching to a central position in one of the two divisions, though it may not appear whether in that which was on the east or in that which was on the west of the river. This little difference of opinion with Mr. R. does not, however, affect the general question with us.

Major Rennell seems to have assumed that the *Majelibe* * was the temple or tower of Belus; and to have attempted, Mr. Rich says, to reduce the area of Babylon to that centre. To us it seems remarkable that he should have adopted any central point to the city generally: but, with his view, and receiving the description of Diodorus as to the two palaces, (which the words of Herodotus do not necessarily imply, although they do not deny their existence,) he resorts, as we have already seen, to a supposed change in the course of the river. On this very material branch of the question, the reply of Mr. Rich is at once full and satisfactory; founded on accurate investigation of the ground, on a knowledge of the river, and of the nature of its periodical inundations; on reasons, in short, which no person who had not actually visited the spot could advance with any equal degree of certainty. After having perused the results of this examination, we may safely concur in the opinion expressed by the present author, that this part at least of the theory of Major Rennell is contradicted by a survey of the ground.

Since, also, it appears that there are now mounds of ruin, which obstruct such a supposed course of the Euphrates in earlier ages, we are led to the second conjecture of the objector; by which he reconciles these present appearances with his own hypothesis, from an idea that they may probably have formed part of a city built on that site subsequently to the destruction of antient Babylon. The reasons urged by Mr. Rich against this theory are also, for the most part, very substantial. First, we find from his personal inspection that

* We must again request our readers to revert to the article on the first memoir, because an explanation of the relative site of these mounds of ruin would involve us in much unnecessary repetition. these

these mounds differ in no respect, either of form or composition, from those which are acknowledged by all parties to belong to the antient city, and 'even appear to form a part of the plan which they help to explain.' Secondly, Mr. Rich argues against the probability of a town, capable of leaving such remains, having been raised on masses of decayed building; a most inconvenient site, and in an age, too, when these masses had probably not subsided into so much solidity as they now possess. This part of the reply is, perhaps, not so close as the preceding; for, however improbable the assumption may be, it seems to us that Major Rennell argues for placing this second town, in a great measure at least, in the deserted bed of the Euphrates, and not on the masses of decomposed materials which belonged to former structures. At the same time, it is worthy of observation that the *Mujelibè* (the tower of Belus, according to the Major,) is the only mound which could offer any probability of more modern construction, since it does bear some resemblance to a fortified artificial mount. Another reason assigned by Major Rennell, for attributing many of the mounds to the ruins of a more recent town, is their circular form: conceiving that, as the streets cut each other at right angles, and by their intersections formed squares containing artificial structures, the mounds would in some measure preserve a quadrilateral form. Before we proceed with this point, let us see what Herodotus says of the internal arrangement of the city, as far as this part of the question is concerned.

Τὸ δὲ ἄςυ αὐτὸ ἐν πλήρεσι οἰκίαισι τριωρόφων τε καὶ τετρωρόφων, καλαῖσμιλαι τὰς ὁδοὺς ἰθείας, τὰς τε ἄλλας, καὶ τὰς ἐπικαρσίας, τὰς ἐπὶ τὸν ποταμὸν ἔχούσας· καὶ δὴ ὧν ἐκάστην ὁδὸν ἐν τῇ αἰμασίῃ τῇ παρὰ τὸν ποταμὸν πυλίδες ἐπῆσαν, ὅσαιπερ αἱ λαῦραι, τοσαῦται ἀριθμὸν. κ. 1. λ. Herodot. Clio. 180.

Nothing can be more clearly intelligible than this passage. When we say that the streets intersected each other at right angles, we have given a fair interpretation; it not being necessary to add the direction of these streets for the present purpose. We fully agree with Mr. Rich, therefore, that it is not probable, no more than it is recorded by Herodotus, at least, who is the best authority, that the city was divided with the precision of a chess-board: though there might be, if the transverse streets were nearly equi-distant, some general appearance of an arrangement approaching to it. Even this concession, or a still greater one founded on the more suspicious accounts of other writers, would offer little support to the objection of Major Rennell; for it is confessed that large spaces in Babylon were unoccupied by houses, and even subject

ject to cultivation : so that, if the streets did make insulated spaces between them, and those were perfect mathematical squares, the absence of contiguity among the buildings would effectually preclude them from assuming any particular form in their ruined state. We might add to this reasoning the natural tendency of all decomposed building-material to lose its angular conformations, and subside into masses having more of a circular than a quadrilateral appearance.

The great mound on the eastern side of the river, (on which side, it will be recollected, the mounds are all situated, with the exception of the *Birs*, so considerably to the west of it,) called the *Kasr*, is one of those which intercept the presumed course of the river; and the learned Major observes respecting it, that it looks too fresh to be coëval with the other mounds. The æra, however, to which he himself would refer the erection of a second town on this site, — let us suppose it to be shortly before the Mohammedan conquest, the close of the seventh or the beginning of the eighth century, — would have been fully sufficient to have allowed it to lose this freshness of appearance, if the argument had any force: but it has *no* force, since it appears that the parts, of which this freshness of appearance is predicated, remained until very lately quite covered up with rubbish. If we add the character of the climate, and the nature of the materials discovered on the opening of the mound, we shall have little or no reason for distinguishing it from others in its vicinity. With respect to some additional objections, urged rather more generally, let Mr. Rich speak in his own words:

‘ As Major Rennel appears generally inclined to receive so literally the statements of the ancients, even of Diodorus, it is a little surprising that he has not adverted to the dimensions assigned by that writer to the palaces: he would have seen, that so far from warranting the belief of the eastern ruins comprising the remains of all the public edifices of Babylon, (viz. the new palace of 60 stades in circumference, the old one of 30 stades, and the Temple of Belus of 8 stades,) it is evident that they will only answer to the new palace, with its Acropolis. It is true, Diodorus places his largest palace on the west: but an author who confounds the Tigris with the Euphrates may without injustice be suspected of a topographical inaccuracy of this nature. Indeed, whether we do or do not admit the authority of Diodorus, the best conclusion to be drawn from the appearance and plan of these ruins is, that they represent the whole of the royal precincts, including the hanging gardens.* The ruins of the Palace of Babylon might well

* We should form a very incorrect notion of the residence of an eastern monarch, if we imagined it was one building which in its

well resemble in every respect those we see on the eastern bank of the Euphrates: the mound called by Major Rennel "the rampart of new Babylon" will answer perfectly to the outer wall of the Palace, for which its extent is by no means too great; and thus all difficulties immediately vanish, without the necessity of turning the river or building a new town. This could hardly have failed striking Major Rennel also, had he not set out by assuming the Mujelibé to be the Tower of Belus; which, if the supposition of the Palace having been situated here be just, must certainly be looked for in a different direction — each being said to be seated within its own division of the city. In fact, there is not the slightest reason to believe that the Tower was situated on or near the river, though we may safely infer that such a stream must have been taken advantage of in placing the Palace. Had the Palace and Tower been so very near each other, it would probably have been remarked by Herodotus, whose authority Major Rennel is willing to abandon in this particular. From what I have before said, it may be seen that I cannot receive the Mujelibé as the Tower of Belus, even independent of its position.

After a brief notice of a few slight alterations, which a farther investigation would induce Mr. Rich to make in some parts of his engraved plans given in the first memoir*, he returns more fully to the subject of the second town, — the existence of which is presumed by Major Rennel, — and examines the pretensions which any places said formerly to exist, but now unknown, might have to such a site. The materials from which this inquiry is prosecuted are scanty: but, as far as they go, they tend much to invalidate the claims of the few places which are mentioned. In concluding this portion of his subject, he expresses his conviction that, if the ruins at Hillah are not *all* to be received as the remains of Babylon, they must be *wholly* excluded from any such claims; so assimilated do they appear to him to be in all their characteristics.

its decay would leave a single mound or mass of ruins. Such establishments always consist of a fortified inclosure, the area of which is occupied by many buildings of various kinds without symmetry or general design, and with large vacant spaces between them.

* Mr. Rich, who dates the present memoir from *Bagdad*, July, 1817, had not, at the period of the transmission of it, received any copy of his own first memoir, as printed in London; which, it may be remembered, was edited from the *Mines de l'Orient*, an oriental literary journal published in Vienna. He complains that the German edition of his essay was very incorrectly edited, and fears that the English impression may have copied such errors, especially in the engraving of the plans.

We enter on a more agreeable part of the subject when we arrive at some additional information derived from the personal observations of the author. Our readers will recollect our account of that extraordinary mass of ruin, the Birs Nemroud, on a former occasion; and we are now enabled to add a far more satisfactory description of it. We cannot abridge what is already laid down in a very concise but perspicuous manner:

'The whole height of the Birs Nemroud above the plain to the summit of the brick-wall is two hundred and thirty-five feet. The brick-wall itself which stands on the edge of the summit, and was undoubtedly the face of another stage, is thirty-seven feet high. In the side of the pile a little below the summit is very clearly to be seen part of another brick-wall, precisely resembling the fragment which crowns the summit, but which still encases and supports its part of the mound. This is clearly indicative of another stage of greater extent. The masonry is infinitely superior to any thing of the kind I have ever seen; and leaving out of the question any conjecture relative to the original destination of this ruin, the impression made by a sight of it is, that it was a solid pile, composed in the interior of unburnt brick, and perhaps earth or rubbish; that it was constructed in receding stages, and faced with fine burnt bricks, having inscriptions on them, laid in a very thin layer of lime cement; and that it was reduced by violence to its present ruinous condition. The upper stories have been forcibly broken down, and fire has been employed as an instrument of destruction, though it is not easy to say precisely how or why. The facing of fine bricks has partly been removed, and partly covered by the falling down of the mass which it supported and kept together. I speak with the greater confidence of the different stages of this pile, from my own observations having been recently confirmed and extended by an intelligent traveller*, who is of opinion that the traces of *four* stages are clearly discernible. As I believe it is his intention to lay the account of his travels before the world, I am unwilling to forestall any of his observations; but I must not omit to notice a remarkable result arising out of them. The Tower of Belus was a stadium in height; therefore, if we suppose the eight towers or stages which composed the Pyramid of Belus to have been of equal height, according to Major Rennel's idea, which is preferable to that of the Count de Caylus (see *Mem. de l'Académie*, vol. xxxi.), we ought to find traces of four of them in the fragment which remains, whose elevation is 235 feet; and this is precisely the number which Mr. Buckingham believes he has discovered. This result is the more worthy attention, as it did not occur to Mr. B. himself.'

In addition to this statement, it is curious to know that the vitrified masses on the summit seem to identify this ruin with

* Mr. Buckingham.

the temple of Belus of Benjamin of Tudela, who says that it was destroyed by fire from heaven; and that the accurate Niebuhr * entertained the same idea of it with Mr. Rich. — Major Rennell, we find, has felt doubts whether the mound was artificial: but they must surely be altogether removed by the perusal of the present memoir. The difficulty of including these stupendous remains within the assigned area of antient Babylon is, in fact, the only obstacle that deserves much consideration; presuming that, as Herodotus and other authors tell us, the city was divided by the Euphrates, and that the Euphrates still preserves its original bed and course. Mr. Rich, indeed, would fix the locality of Babylon by this very ruin, even to the exclusion of the Mujelibè, and the other mounds on the eastern side of the river, if such an exclusion were necessary to establish it round the Birs: but we agree with him that such a sacrifice is not necessary. If we take the admeasurements of Herodotus for the circumference of Babylon, (that is, four hundred and eighty stadia,) enormous as it certainly does appear, we have the authority of Mr. Rich, who has so minutely examined the ground, for saying that both the Birs and the eastern ruins would easily fall within the given area: but how far the former would make any approach to a central position in the western division, he does not tell us.

Against the authority of Herodotus, we have only, as Mr. Rich justly observes, our own vague notions of probability; although this very historian has often been said to prove the more accurate the more he has been examined. Yet even our notions of improbability will be weakened, if we consider antient Babylon to have been rather an inclosed district containing a great city, than an immense walled town; and history affords us many reasons for regarding it in this point of view. † If such were our belief, we should

* See Niebuhr, vol. ii. p. 289. — The following references may also possibly be useful to persons curious on the subject: — Comte de Caylus, *Hist. de l'Acad. des Inscript.* vol. xxxi. p. 42, &c. — D'Anville, in the *Mem. de l'Acad.* vol. xxxviii. p. 255.; — and M. Beauchamp, *ibid.* vol. v. p. 48., who disbelieves the division of the city by the river.

† As a curious illustration of this idea, which has not escaped Mr. Rich, the reader may be referred to Herodotus, *Clio.* c. 191. When Cyrus turned the river, and, having reduced it to little more than two feet in depth, marched his army through the channel of it, the inhabitants were ignorant of the stratagem, and did not close the brazen gates, which formed the termination of each street to the river, at its bank. This statement supposes a degree of dispersion among the inhabitants that is almost incredible. Does it not also argue that the Palace did not stand on the bank of the Euphrates?

have

have little cause of wonder; and those who still doubted must consider the wall of China as utterly fabulous.

One thing has struck us, which does not seem to have occurred to Mr. Rich. If any change can be presumed in the course of the Euphrates since the time of Herodotus, and if it be satisfactorily proved that the line of that river could not have passed farther to the east than it now does, is it not possible that it might have passed nearer to the west; and what are the local difficulties which obstruct this possibility? Such a course of the river would most undoubtedly solve many objections: for us to reason on it would be folly: but it is a question to which an answer from competent authority would be very satisfactory.

We have reluctantly been compelled to abstain from noticing some sepulchral and other relics discovered in the ruins by Mr. Rich, as also the observations which he has made on the classes of Babylonian writing, including his remarks on the bricks and cylinders. — He promises us a third memoir, on the subject of Nineveh, which we shall have great pleasure in reporting. *

ART. IX. *Cheap Manure*, produced from the newly discovered Methods of burning Clay; compiled from the best Authorities, with a few Hints on the Advantages of cutting Wheat early. 8vo. pp. 32. Printed at York.

THE rage for paring and burning the surface-soil, prevalent a few years ago, brings to mind the proverbial improvidence of the man who set fire to his tree that he might roast an egg in its ashes. Not merely was the practice adopted for the purpose of destroying the roots, moss, furze, rough grass,

* We are glad to find that Mr. Rich's remarks in his first memoir are embodied in the supplement to the fifth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, which seems likely to insure them a durable existence. In the original article on "Babylon" in that work, however, the writer combines the different accounts of the antients, without distinguishing the authorities. We read, consequently, of the division of the city into 676 squares, in the area given by Herodotus: but the squares are not supported by that historian. The same writer calculates the space, which remained unbuilt in the time of Alexander, at 6300 square furlongs, out of a total of 14,400. This notion is assumed from Q. Curtius, who writes that no more than 90 furlongs were then built. The city being a square, the writer allows equal breadth and length to the part which was built in this estimate, which seems to admit the utmost probability.

ant-hills, &c., with which heaths and commons are usually encumbered where no plough has ever drawn a furrow, but oftentimes it was followed for the purpose of extorting a crop from old arable land which had become exhausted by unfair usage, but which might have been restored by less violent and dangerous management. A frequent repetition of the experiment would certainly have left the landlord a barren soil, and a barren rent-roll: like the momentary vigour bestowed by dram-drinking, it would ultimately have produced an irremediable loss of substance and of strength.

Dr. Darwin remarks in his *Phytologia*, (Sect. X. 7. 4.) that, when clay is united with so much oxygen by fire as to form a soft or imperfect brick, it possesses the power of promoting the generation of nitrous acid in certain situations, which is frequently seen, like an efflorescence, on mouldering walls; having become, by the addition of lime, a calcareous nitre. These soft efflorescent bricks, when pulverized and mixed with the soil, powerfully promote vegetation, at the same time that they are capable of producing the nitrous acid. Dr. D. accordingly attributes the advantage of paring and burning the turf of commons, &c. to this circumstance; that is, the heat emitted from the burning vegetable fibres unites oxygen with the clay which constitutes so large a portion of the turf, as it is dug from the ground. In other respects, it would be a wasteful procedure, because much carbon is converted into carbonic acid, and dispersed with the uninflamed smoke; and nothing is left but the vegetable ashes. Dr. Darwin was so very fanciful a theorist, and infused into his philosophy so large an alloy of poetry, that he is not the safest guide in the world for a humble practitioner to follow: but the advantages, which experience has proved to result from burning clay, he unquestionably anticipated; and the compiler of the pages now before us, had he been aware of the circumstance, might have had the honour of adding to his authorities the name of Dr. Darwin: who says, "from these considerations it would probably be worthy experiment, in farms where coal and clay abound, to burn the latter to a certain degree, which might supply an exhaustless source of profitable manure."

The burning of clay for manure appears to have originated with the Earl of Halifax, almost a century ago, and the practice was pursued both in England and Scotland with success. The expensive mode of burning it may perhaps have counterbalanced its advantages: certainly, for some reason, it was afterward abandoned, and was not resumed till within these few years: but Mr. Craig, having witnessed the luxuriant crop-

produced by it in Ireland, of wheat and corn of every description, as well as of flax, turnips, and potatoes, has restored the practice to Scotland. It now bids fair to have an extensive trial in South Britain: for that indefatigable and judicious agriculturist, Mr. Curwen, in his "Observations on the State of Ireland,"* in a tone of enthusiasm scarcely exceeded by Archimedes himself when he discovered the quantity of alloy in Hiero's crown, says, "The discoverers of the New World could scarcely have felt more delight at the sight of land than I did at the effects produced by this valuable operation. I decided at once on its introduction on my own farm; and understanding that Mr. Boyd had no farther occasion for his principal operator, I engaged him, anticipating not only the important changes which it will enable me to make at home, but the improvement of thousands of acres lying barren and unproductive in our neighbourhood, from the inability of procuring lime or other fertilizing substitutes. Were the views of my Irish tour exclusively directed to an investigation of this practice, I should think my time profitably employed with a view to the advancement of agriculture in Cumberland and Westmoreland." (Vol. i. p. 57.)

Much care and some skill seem to be requisite in the management of the heat; and, when the operation of clay-burning is attempted on a large scale, an *experienced* practitioner would more than compensate the cost of his services: but the first consideration is *fuel*: if that cannot be obtained in abundance, and cheap, then, according to the French proverb, "*le jeu ne vaudroit pas la chandelle*;"† — unless indeed lime can be had cheap, by means of which ignition may be effected. Mounds of 7 yards in length, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ yards in breadth, are kindled with about 72 Winchester bushels of lime, immediately from the kiln. 'First a layer of dry sods or parings, on which a quantity of lime is spread, mixing sods with it; then a covering of 8 inches of sods, on which the other half of the lime is spread and covered a foot thick, the height of the mound being about a yard.' The usual method of burning clay, or *any adhesive sub-soil*, however, is first, by means of green sods, to make an oblong inclosure, $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 feet high, 15 feet long, and 10 or 12 wide. In the inside of this inclosure, air-pipes are to be drawn, diagonally communicating with holes left at each corner of the exterior wall; which pipes are formed of sods put on edge. In each of the four

* See Monthly Review for November 1818.

† The game would not pay for the candle; the ashes would not be worth the firing.

spaces between the air-pipes and the wall, a fire is kindled with turf or wood, and then the whole of the inside of the inclosure or kiln is filled with dry turf. When this is well kindled, the clay is thrown on by small quantities at a time. It is obvious that the air-pipes are only of use at first, because they are soon reduced to ashes; and, indeed, the one which is on the weather-side is alone left open, the other three being stopped up, only to be opened if the wind changes. As the clay-heap rises, the outer wall must be raised, and it should always be 15 or 16 inches higher than the body of clay. Care must be taken that the fire does not become too fierce, and escape at the top or the sides: the more slowly combustion goes on, the better, for if the ashes are thoroughly calcined they are of very little value.

The Rev. Mr. Wilkieson, who has published a letter on this subject in the 14th vol. of the Bath Papers, (see the ensuing article,) excavates a space about one foot deep, and with the soil thrown out forms his exterior wall. In Suffolk, the practice is to burn the clay in *heaps*, not in kilns. A quantity of straw is laid in a heap, then four or five faggots of wood and two or three blocks; no more fuel is added, although a portion of turf is necessary to keep up the walls and strengthen the fire. A heap of twelve yards diameter contains about a hundred loads of ashes, at 36 bushels each. This seems a much simpler operation than the former: but, as the heaps produce a greater proportion of burnt soil which has been exposed to the action of air than will be the case with kilns, the ashes may be more liable to complete calcination. The expence of the process varies in different places, from a shilling to eighteen-pence per load, exclusive of fuel: thirty or thirty-five loads to an acre, in most cases, will be a sufficient quantity.

ART. X. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c.* selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. XIV. 8vo. pp. 280. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinson. Printed in 1816, and published in 1818.

THE first sentence in this volume contains an erroneous statement, of no great consequence, indeed: but, if a Welshman will boast of the antiquity of his own family, he should at least allow the honest claims of a brother Cambrian. It is stated that 'the Bath Society is anterior in its establishment to any other similar institution in this kingdom:' but we have before us the first volume of its transactions, which was published in the year 1780; and in the preface is given an account

account of the origin of the Society, from which it appears that in 1777 several gentlemen met at Bath with the laudable view of affording, by their joint efforts, encouragement to the agriculture, arts, &c. &c. of the counties of Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, and the city of Bristol. The project was warmly supported, and it received ample subscriptions and many useful communications; after which, we are told, "On application to the London and provincial societies in this kingdom, instituted for the like purpose, they very politely offered their assistance in communicating what might be generally useful, and to some of them we are indebted for much interesting intelligence." (Preface to the first vol., p. iv.) It therefore appears that, instead of taking the lead, several similar societies, both in London and the country, were already instituted, to which the Bath Society acknowledged their obligations in the first volume of their transactions.

On looking over the list of premiums, we cannot but express regret at the disproportion and inadequacy of those which are awarded to 'long and faithful servitude.' We see ten-guinea *rouleaus* freely conferred on the graziers of fat oxen; on the exhibitors of reverend patriarchal rams, of good motherly ewes, and of harmless wethers, whose chaste and irreproachable lives indeed have set slander and suspicion at defiance; — while a pitiful premium of three guineas, absolutely in derision, is awarded to John Parsons for 'a faithful servitude' of *fifty-six years*; three guineas to Robert Pinckney for a 'faithful servitude' of *forty-five years*; and three guineas to some other honest creatures, who have slaved for almost half a century in the service of their respective masters! This mockery of reward is unworthy of the munificence and of the judgment of so truly respectable a Society. Whether personal merit be considered, or the interests of husbandry, it must be felt, surely, that the value of such premiums bears an inverse proportion to the value of the objects on which they are bestowed. A man who has been industrious and faithful in his service, during a long course of forty or fifty years, has no chance against a heavy fleece or a fat carcase!

The first two articles in the volume detail the proceedings of the Society at two annual meetings, under the presidency of Sir Benjamin Hobhouse; whose speeches refer to a period at which the interests of agriculture were suffering under a heavy depression: a depression from which they are by no means recovered, and which must continue, in spite of any expedients, as long as the present system of poor-laws and tithes and the present burden of taxation exist.

The third article is a *Prize Essay on the Diseases of Wheat*, by the Rev. R. Hoblyn. It may be questioned whether the plain practical farmer will reap much instruction from this essay; which, however ingenious, is far from being written in a clear and intelligible manner. The subject being scientific, and the paper addressed to a class of society not highly educated, a peculiar attention to simplicity of language was requisite, and here the reverend author fails. As a preliminary to his inquiry, he describes, according to the most popular systems of modern physiologists, the constituent parts of a grain of wheat; namely, gluten, starch, fixed oil, and carbon, in unequal proportions; then the botanical structure of the plant; its chemical composition; and the nature of its decay. Mr. Hoblyn uses the term *Blight*, in a comprehensive sense, to denote every variety of disease to which wheat is liable. The diseases immediately considered are what is called the *Rust*, and the *Collibrand* or *Smut*; for the *Mildew* is dispatched in a solitary page. In conformity with an opinion which we have expressed elsewhere *, that Sir Joseph Banks, in attributing rust or mildew to the attachment of parasitic fungi, mistook an effect for a cause, Mr. Hoblyn ascribes that disease 'to every cause that may operate to prevent the plant from arriving at its due perfection,' considering proper culture to be the great preventative of the disease. He adds that 'disease originating from the source of ill conduct is the only malady incident to the cultivation of grain which admits of no modification—no controlling palliative.' Soil, too wet or too dry; a deficiency or a redundancy of manure; plants too thick or too thin on the ground; external accident; internal weakness; too much shade; too much sun: these and a hundred other causes, separate or combined, are to be considered as predisposing the plant to disease.

'The following positions will comprehend the whole of the author's general conclusions on the first class of the diseases incident to the plant of wheat, depending upon its botanical structure.

'First, that the *primary*, *remote*, or *distant* cause of the diseases of wheat terminating in *rust*, appears to be, the *cessation* or *suspension* of that active vital principle which is necessary to support the growth of the plant, and to promote its ultimate progress towards maturity.

'Secondly, that the *proximate* or *immediate* cause of the actual presence of rust appears to be that invariable and spontaneous effort of nature to decompose, and resolve into its elementary principles, that plant, which, by the full *extinction* or partial re-

* See our review of the 7th vol. of "Communications to the Board of Agriculture," Vol. lxxxvii. p. 158.

mission of the vital principle, whether occasioned by internal defect or external accident, does not possess the power and ability to reach its utmost destined perfection; which is that of ripening its seed, and consequently of continuing its own species.

‘ Thirdly, that the *fungus* appears to be the universal attendant on the last stage of mucilaginous decomposition or putrefaction, and the immediate symptom of speedy dissolution.’

The *Collibrand*, or *Smut*, is a corruption of the grain; exhibiting within the husk of the seed, instead of a farinaceous substance, a black, greasy, stinking powder: the most decided and dangerous characteristic is its quality of infecting other grains by contact, and of imparting the property to them of propagating smutty wheat. The oily nature of this infectious powder makes it difficult to be dispersed by simple washing; and the only approved and established remedy hitherto discovered is by liming. Lime has the property of defeating the action of the morbid particles of the collibrand by accelerating their putrefaction: it separates the oil from the putrid matter, destroying the old combinations, and forming new ones.’

Mr. Benett, in an *Essay on the Commutation of Tithes*, proposes that land should be given to the church as an equivalent; urging the obvious objection to a permanent corn-rent, that this would rise in value as the price of corn advances, although the latter advantage to the farmer might be more than counterbalanced by the weight of taxes and poor-rate, and by the general expences of cultivation. He suggests that land might be purchased by commissioners acting under the authority of parliament, any where within the county or diocese in which the clergyman dwells; his residence being no more necessary on his estate than any other land-owner. He would have clergymen allowed to grant ten years’ leases, binding on their successors; and he proposes that 5 per cent. on the profits of church-lands should be annually vested in the hands of trustees, to answer, and to pay for, at the death of incumbents, any injury which the estate may have sustained by improper treatment: these damages to be assessed by valuers, appointed by the patron and the executors of the late incumbent, and expended on the estate by the new one. On the other hand, should an incumbent have made any great and expensive improvements, by draining, cultivating waste lands, inclosing, &c. &c., and not have lived to reap the natural and fair remuneration, these expences are proposed to be valued in the same manner, and a certain equitable proportion of them, decided by the valuers, to be repaid by the new incumbent to the executors of his predecessor: — colleges to be allowed to sell

sell the tithes of all their livings, and to purchase estates to the amount of the value of the whole.

Two other communications relate to the subject of commuting tithes: one by the Rev. Mr. Lewis, and the other by Dr. Edwards. It is an auspicious omen that the clergy themselves are offering to the public the result of their own meditations on this important matter: they cannot be insensible to the evils—personal, moral, and political—which flow from the present system; and many of them would gladly receive a fair equivalent for those rights over the produce of the earth which the law allows, but which, whenever enforced to the utmost, not only entail on the individual the ill-will and jealousy of all his parishioners, but stamp throughout an entire diocese his character for rapacity.

A very few years ago, to pronounce the word *commutation* was to sound an alarm throughout the church; not a hint could be thrown out, even in a whisper; no terms could be proposed, however open and liberal, to which some sinister view was not attached:—a snake was always believed to lurk in the grass. That a change of sentiment so complete and so favourable to the measure has taken place is a most encouraging circumstance: the parties may now meet in reciprocal confidence of equity and candour; and with a conviction that, under an arrangement conducted and concluded in this spirit, the interests of both, the independence of both, and the good feelings of both, will be essentially promoted.

Two papers occur on *the Cultivation of Fiorin Grass*; one by Sir John Cox Hippisley, and the other, with the motto *vires acquirit eundo*, by the Rev. Wm. B. Barter. The wondrous productiveness of this grass, first brought into general notice by Dr. Richardson, has been attested by every one who has grown it. Being an aquatic plant, it thrives most luxuriantly on boggy soils, and in wet weather, by the side of drains, &c.; and its luxuriance would probably be much increased if it could receive occasional irrigation. Having recently noticed an essay on Fiorin by Dr. Richardson, and in various articles frequently enumerated its merits, it would be superfluous and tiresome in us to enlarge on them again: but both these communications will be consulted with advantage by any person who is about to make an experiment on its cultivation.

We find a very sensible paper by Mrs. Agnes Ibbetson,—a lady well known for the ingenuity of her researches in vegetable physiology,—on *the Adaptation of Plants to different Soils*. Perhaps, in the whole range of rural economy, there is not a more prevalent or more mischievous error than the inattention to this subject. Some grasses are by nature more

impatient of humidity than others, and of course are best suited to dry soils; others, delighting in moisture, are unable to resist the effects of heat and drought:—some bear cold better than others, and therefore may be safely sown on those high and exposed situations which would be fatal to the more tender sorts:—some grasses shoot early in the spring, an object of great consideration;—and some have a rank exuberant growth, affording a large but coarse produce; while others spread themselves in a lateral direction, yielding less abundantly, but bearing grass of a more fine and delicate quality. In the vegetable world, too, as in the animal, the strongest and most powerful will obtain and exercise a *mastery* over the weaker. Mrs. Ibbetson has not adverted to this circumstance: but the late Mr. Curtis, who many years ago recommended an arrangement of grasses for different soils, well observed that persons are apt to draw conclusions too hastily from the appearance which a plant assumes on its being first sown. The most insignificant will often make a great show when its fibres have fresh earth to receive them: but the trial comes when the object of the experiment has been in meadow several years; when its fibres, from long growth, are matted together, and it meets with powerful neighbours to dispute every inch of ground with it. Lucerne, if unassisted, is soon overpowered; and, if broad-leaved clover, which is undoubtedly a perennial, be sown, it will produce a great crop in the first year: but, let the field be left to itself, and the clover like the lucerne will yearly diminish; not because it is biennial, which has been often supposed, but because plants that are hardier, or more congenial to the soil, usurp its place. This circumstance shews, therefore, as Mr. Curtis adds, that, at the same time that a good plant is introduced, it should likewise be a powerful one, and able to *keep possession* and continue to be productive.

‘Vegetables,’ says Mrs. Ibbetson, ‘will not grow in pure earth, or pure water; some plants are so organized as to require only mechanical support from the soil, abstracting their nourishment from the atmosphere by means of their leaves; whilst others from their roots depend upon the soil for their support. Although many plants will grow in different soils, yet they have all their favourite ground; and it is more easy to accommodate the plant to the soil, than to adapt the soil to the plant. By knowing, therefore, what sort of plant the farmer is going to put in, he may of course be regulated with respect to the quantity and species of manure required, the aspect wanted, and the degree of humidity and dryness requisite for the plant. All plants came originally from a peculiar earth; either from clay, sand, gravel, chalk, or loams formed from a mixture of some of these, or from a very
wet

wet or dry soil; and though many plants will grow indifferently in several species of earth, yet they have all their favourite ground, *that* which they *evidently prefer*. Now to make the soil fit for the plant, is certainly a very expensive thing; but to adapt the plant to the soil is not only an easy, expeditious mode, but one which requires infinitely less assistance in dressing, labour, seed, and care of every kind. It is true that all cultivated plants demand some manure, because nature gives not salt and oil *enough*, in *any earth*, to do without *some assistance* of this kind; but the plant that is natural to the soil requires infinitely less than that which is adverse to it, and may therefore be cultivated at a quarter of the expense. Now nature is so bountiful, that there is scarce a plant necessary to the food of man and animals, that, if we choose to seek it with care, has not *one peculiar sort* calculated for *every soil*. Thus in clovers, there is a sand clover, a clay clover, a gravel, and a chalk clover; one that grows well in rich lands; and one that would be ruined in a good soil, and can grow and do well only in a poor one; one that will not endure moisture, and one that only grows in wet land; one that prefers hills, and one that will grow in vallies alone; one that likes the sun, and one that covets shade. Nature has been equally bountiful in most other plants peculiarly adapted to *agriculture*, and in which there are *quite as many species* fitted for *poor land*, as for *rich ones*; and, if planted in their own soils, give an infinitely greater return, and are not subject to those *dreadful disorders* but *too common* to plants placed in improper ground. —

‘A plant accustomed to a poor soil, placed in a good one, *rots*; while the one that prefers a *rich loam* is *starved* in a *poor one*. A clayey plant put in sand is blown out of the earth, for want of those *retentive powers* the root is used to; while the sand plant, placed in clay, decays at the root from the under moisture which it cannot bear. The chalk plant, also, placed in gravel, is destroyed by its own *acidity*, which is *no longer subdued*: for most plants (if the farmer do not grudge the making the soil) he may certainly do it, but it can never answer in point of expense. It is a strange mistake, and a most fatal one, that almost all, even *some of our best, gentlemen farmers* fall into, viz. that they cannot manure *too highly*. Now this is so completely the cause of innumerable failures, that I am most anxious to censure the practice. It always reminds me of the account given by Miller, of what was done in the *West Indies*, when some botanists were desirous of bringing over some fine plants of the *cactæ species*. They enquired not what the plants *were*, but wholly inattentive to their being *rock plants*, they put them into tubs of the richest soil they could procure; the *plants all died*: but this was looked upon as accident, and the same process again followed, when one of the casks breaking, they concluded the plants must die, as the earth had left them; and flinging on them some dry sand, which happened to be in the way, ordered the cask down to the hold, when to their great astonishment the plants *so treated lived*, while those in the other cases died, *as usual*.’

Some

Some valuable observations on the indigenous grasses of Britain are to be found in the third volume of the *Prize-Essays* of the Highland Society, by Mr. Don, who has given those specific properties of many different sorts which adapt them to peculiar situations. A general principle of accommodation to food and climate, however, prevails in the vegetable as well as in the animal kingdom. Exotics become naturalized by time and care, and the wildest plants are domesticated. Thus, as we see in Mr. Polito's *Ménagerie*, beasts and birds brought together from all parts of the world,—from the poles and the equator,—under the same roof, forgetful of their original habits and their native climates, and accommodating themselves to the iron law of necessity; so do we see some plants changing their very nature when occasion requires it. A remarkable instance is mentioned by Mr. Don, of the *Poa Alpina* (Alpine Meadow-grass): “I first found it,” says he, “in 1788, on a high rock called Corbie Craig, among some stones near Airly Castle, in Angus-shire: it is also found near the summit of several of the Highland alps; but in these very elevated situations, it is always viviparous: that is, its flowers become perfect minute plants, which drop off and strike root in the ground; an admirable provision of nature for the propagation of the plant in alpine regions, where the severity and continual moistness of the climate would, in general, prevent the seeds from ripening.” As there are some plants which delight in a fertile soil, and would be starved in a sterile one, so are there others which cannot bear *high living*, and will only succeed on a barren earth congenial to that which gave them birth. Mr. Don gives two or three curious instances of the pertinacity of some plants to their peculiar soils. The *Aira flexuosa* prefers a dry and barren soil; while another *Aira*, which he calls *uliginosa*, is always found in wet and marshy ground. Neither of these, after repeated trials, could he cultivate on rich soils: the *A. uliginosa*, moreover, will not succeed on a dry barren soil; nor the *A. flexuosa* on a wet barren soil: but they both thrive well on the soils indicated by nature. Thus it appears that the terms rich and poor, fruitful and barren, are inaccurately applied to soils: “What is one man's food,” the proverb says, “is another man's poison;” and so it is with plants: that soil which starves one species sustains another.

Dr. Sherwen has given an article *On the Probability of cultivating to advantage the Marine Pea, and some other of the leguminous Class of Vegetables, on the Sea Shores of Great Britain and Ireland*. It is recorded by Sir Richard Baker and

by

by Stowe in their Chronicles, by Camden likewise, and other old writers, that in the year 1555, "in Suffolcke, at a place by the sea-side all of hard stone and pibble, lying between the towns of Orford and Alborough, where never grew grasse nor any earth was ever seene, there chanced in this barren place, suddenly to spring up without any tillage, great abundance of peason, whereof the poore gathered, as men judged, above an hundred quarters," &c. &c.; "to the which place rode the Bishop of Norwich, the L. Willoughby, with others in great number, who found nothing but hard rocky stone the space of three yards under the rootes of those peason, which rootes were great and long and very sweete," &c. As so great a dearth of corn prevailed throughout England in that year that the poor were obliged to eat acorns, and as these peas were not "sowen by man's hand, nor like other pease," it was generally considered that the beneficence of God had performed a miracle in favour of the half-famished inhabitants of Suffolk: but some persons, not quite so faithful, attributed the supply to pulse which had been cast on shore by shipwreck. Ray has given a long article on these peas in his *Catalogus Plantarum Angliæ*, and considers them to have been the *Pisum Maritimum Britannicum* of Parkinson, or the *Marimum* of Gerard. — The object of this communication of Dr. Sherwen is to recommend a prize for the best conducted experiment, to discover whether any of our leguminous plants, sown in similar situations, will take root and flourish. The marine pea being a perennial, its cultivation becomes an object of double importance: 'for the extensive growth which either first took place or was first noticed in 1555, on the Sussex coast, still flourishes there, affording an annual supply of green nutritive food for sheep and oxen.'

Mr. Dowding, who has been a great sufferer by a disease incident to young cattle, called *the Quarter Evil*, has given a recipe for the prevention of that which he deems incurable.

Art. X. is a Letter from the Hon. R. Peters, President of the Society of Agriculture in Pennsylvania, to Sir B. Hobhouse, accompanied by specimens of some *American Earths and Minerals used as Manure*, with an Analysis of them by two American chemists, and by Dr. Wilkinson, Chemical Professor to the Bath Society. 'I had heard so much of the effects of this manure,' says Mr. Peters, 'that I made a little tour last summer into the scene of its operations, and was both surprised and convinced. Late barren fields clad with the richest verdure — heretofore miserable farms converted into gardens — risen in their value from ten dollars to two hundred per acre,' &c. &c. — 'I have seen white clover, by means

means of this manure alone, on a steril sand, knee deep, without a seed sown.' Of this *golden earth* there are many varieties, and several specimens were sent over for analysis. It does not appear that any calcareous matter is contained in them, or that iron exists in any state soluble in water. From a careful examination, for the result of which we must refer to the communication itself, Dr. Wilkinson is induced to believe that these *marls* (as they are most incorrectly called in America) resemble our chloritic sands; such as the green sand observed under the chalk-strata of Pewsey, Warminster, &c. The *Jersey marls*, however, have a larger proportion of silex than the sands of Pewsey; which latter, when mixed with manure, form a very rich compost.

The Rev. W. Wilkieson has stated the *Result of some Experiments on burning of Clay*. We have alluded to this paper in our notice of a compilation intitled "Cheap Manure," in the preceding article, p. 54.

The last paper gives a brief historical account of the origin of the Poor-Laws, by Edmund Griffith, Esq. a barrister of Bristol. The two points particularly argued are, first, that the practice of supplying the poor with pecuniary aid while they remain in idleness is contrary to law, as well as inconsistent with the principles of justice and morality. The object of the 43d of Elizabeth was to provide employment for those who are able to work, and relief only for those who are incapacitated by age or infirmity; and the inference drawn is that an idle overseer, who abandons the office which his very name imports, is the person to whom the public must impute the perversion of the Poor-Laws, and the greater part of the burden of an annual expenditure of eight millions: the great defect in our system for the relief of the poor being not in the principle or provisions of the laws, but in their execution. The second point is, that every class of society ought to bear its own burdens: the trading and manufacturing class should support their own poor, and the land-owners and occupiers should maintain theirs; and those who derive a revenue from money and interest should contribute to each, though in fact out of this enormous revenue nothing is contributed in aid of either. Mr. Griffith contends that, although that opulent class, the creditors of government, did not exist when the ancient statutes for the relief of the poor were enacted, still they are within the letter and principle of the law; and that the exemption of them from their share of the burden is destructive of the principle and contrary to the express direction of both the statutes of Elizabeth, by which it is enacted that every inhabitant and occupier in every parish shall be taxed according

according to his means. These are points of too grave and complex a nature to be discussed at the close of an article. If Mr. Griffith will read the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the subject of the Poor-Laws, he will find some weighty reasons against taxing fund-owners, and against making it imperative on overseers to *provide* work for paupers.

We have learned that Sir Benjamin Hobhouse has retired from the chair of the Bath Society. The present volume is dedicated to him by them as a testimony of their gratitude for his judicious and indefatigable exertions in its interests, and of their sense of his talents and excellent private character.

ART. XI. *A Churchman's Second Epistle.* By the Author of *Religio Clerici*. With Notes and Illustrations. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1819.

A GREAT improvement, we think, is discernible in this anonymous author. His lines have a more condensed and vigorous expression than in his former work; and they have more both of sense and of spirit. The addition of ample notes is also valuable; and we scarcely know where to look for a better exposure of the follies of fanaticism than the writer has here presented, in extracts from the most approved methodistical writers and preachers of the day. He must have bestowed much pains and time on this curious collection of infatuated and absurd passages; forming a sort of "*Florilegium Evangelicum*," sufficient to satisfy any reasonable and reflecting person, of the great similarity which exists between the religious spirit of our own times, and that which prevailed in the great rebellion. Still farther to manifest this extraordinary likeness, the 'Churchman' has contrasted many Presbyterian and Independent effusions, with those of the Methodists in and out of the Church of England at the present æra. With a specimen or two of the last, we shall present our readers: but we must first call their attention to an animated and poetical passage in the work before us.

Whatever difference of political opinion may exist respecting the hero of the subjoined quotation, no reader, we think, can fail to approve the *manner* in which this advocate of one of the Stuarts here defends his cause and character.

' Unhappy Charles! Oh, might we blot the page,
Which tells our fathers' worse than civil rage;
Purge off the blood, and shame of kindred strife,
And the foul traffic for thy barter'd life!

Oh

Oh! tutor'd early in that erring school
Where every art was known, save how to rule.
Taught by the frock'd and pedant monarch's plan,
All but the science of thyself, and man;
Born with affections for a crown too kind,
Free, gentle, courteous, gallant, and refin'd;
Hapless in temper, fortune, station, time,
And curs'd with goodness which in thee was crime!
A mind which chequer'd by distinction nice
Made all its private virtue public vice;
Alike irresolute for good or ill,
In action nerveless, only strong in will;
Betray'd, rejected, injur'd, on the throne,
Lov'd, mourn'd, and envied, in thy fall alone!
For mark, when Royalty's brief tale is told,
And the worn robe of empire waxes old;
How soaring upward after each new blow,
The martyr leaves his destiny below!
Then no unprincely doubts his bosom tear,
No thoughts but those a monarch may declare;
No wish was his, which kings should shrink to frame,
No look but such as majesty became.
Mov'd but as some spectator of his woes,
He sees the drama hastening to its close;
Scorns the brute force which seeks in vain to hide
Its bastard growth beneath unmanner'd pride;
Unshaken hears Sedition's foul deceit,
Religion's mockery, and Law's solemn cheat;
The cold reproach, the contumely keen,
The rude, harsh, taunt, and insult of the mean;
The low-born gibe with which the rabble pay
Their debt of vengeance when the great decay.
Till at the last, secure of death, he views
The goal Rebellion's bloody foot pursues;
'Tis then he throws all worldly state apart,
And binds the Christian's buckler round his heart;
Faith, Hope, and Meekness, surer arms supply,
And teach the king to fall, the saint to die.
Ev'n when in studied bitterness of hate,
His palace-court receives the mournful state;
Heaven has his thanks which, chastening him, has shewn,
How near the scaffold rises to the throne.
There sorrowing crowds their prince's wrongs confess,
And rugged lips, unus'd to blessing, bless;
Scarce think the dreadful pageant can be true,
Nor dare believe what guilt has dar'd to do.
There not the woman tears of passion flow,
But all is frozen to one blank of woe;
Silence of grief, or hearts which speak in sighs,
And sad astonishment with doubting eyes;

Untimely throes, whose midwife is Despair,
 And Horror, stiffening with uplifted hair.
 Enough of Earth! now Heaven alone remains,
 And but one stage of sorrow more detains :
 Prayers fill the space between, and when they cease,
 His last "Remember!" stamps the pledge of Peace!

We could make many remarks on the overcharged panegyric of this extract: but we forbear. Turning to a very slight subject in comparison with the above we have to observe a plagiarism in this author from one of his cotemporaries. The line,

'How near the scaffold rises to the throne,'

is taken, word for word, from the "Lady Jane Grey" of Mr. Hodgson.

The next selection which we shall make is from the more strictly theological portion of this vigorous little poem, in which the author is describing the wretched effects of Calvinistic preaching :

— 'in many a breast there lies
 A stubborn fiend, no charm can exorcise:
 Fierce tyrant of the bosom's desert lair,
 Which Zeal has garnish'd for his house — Despair.
 Yon walls are lofty, and the jealous gate
 Not often on its hinge is heard to grate —
 Pause ere you draw the bolts; they seldom ope
 For any who have yet to do with Hope.
 But if resistless impulse urge you on
 To see the piteous wreck of Reason gone,
 Wrap round your heart a triple mail, and steel
 Each sense, and bar it from its power to feel.
 For me — Oh! how much rather would I tread
 Some charnel-house, fresh heap'd with festering dead;
 There o'er the body's foul corruption brood,
 And watch the flesh-worm glutting on his food;
 Than God's own image lost in ruin find,
 And shudder mid the lazar-house of mind! —
 Within, a long dim gallery, through the wall
 Cheerless, and scanty are the rays that fall:
 And better were it light should never flow,
 Where the gay sunshine does but flout at woe.
 On — on again — it matters not who dwell
 On either side, in this or yonder cell.
 Pass we the slaving idiot's leer; the frown
 Of the mock monarch with his paper crown;
 The joyless laugh's fierce merriment; the scream
 Of those who in their savage mirth blaspheme;
 And the grim maniac, whose infuriate knife
 Cares not whence gather'd, so its food be life.

On, till that open door delays you, there
 Mark well how much of suffering man may bear !
 High overhead a single window rais'd,
 Frowns rough with bars of iron, and unglaz'd ;
 Day glimmers darkly through, but the sharp sleet,
 Rain, snow, and north winds, fully on it beat.
 Naked the walls, except where staples show
 Chains, now unneeded, once have hung below.
 So narrow, little more than one good stride,
 Would bear you cross its bounds, from side to side.
 Yet far too much this scanty range for him
 Who sits within, unmov'd in face or limb :
 So gaunt, so speechless, and his stony eye
 So fix'd with steadfast gaze on vacancy ;
 Rapt in such trance, so lifeless in each part,
 He looks as modelled by some sculptor's art.
 Thus daily, nightly, for on that sad brow
 Sleep rarely sheds his soothing poppies now ;
 Reckless of hour or season, with no thought,
 Save by the fearful dream within him wrought !
 Link'd not to Time, but to Eternity,
 And living but in that which is to be :
 Ev'n in the body's coil he feels all soul,
 And thinks himself beyond his earthly goal.
 Before his eyes, already round the seat,
 Where vengeance calls him, countless millions meet :
 Rang'd on the left, he dares not raise his sight,
 And views no Saviour in the source of light.
 He hears the doom which trumpet tongues proclaim,
 And his heart burns with the predestin'd flame.
 Oh ! might he quench Hell's furies, and again
 Shrink back to slumber from the gulph of pain ;
 From the devouring worm within him fly,
 Once more be mortal, and for ever die !

The note, illustrative of the subject of this passage, too miserably evinces the correct truth of the representation : but we prefer an extract from that part of the notes which exhibits the melancholy and revolting infatuation of methodism, or puritanism, in its effects on even the most abandoned of mankind. These, in fact, form the proper sphere of this religious disease ; which (as Swift long since pointed out) more resembles the "*wind-cholic*" than any other disorder. Butler, indeed, deserves the original merit of making a discovery of this likeness, between apparently different objects :

— "*illā se jactet in aula
 Æolus, et clauso ventorum carcere regnet.*"

' V. 459. — *Falcons at the tree.*] The conversion of condemned malefactors is a favourite employment of the Evangelical Branch,

and if we may believe the numerous pamphlets which are published on the subject, a very successful one. See "A Brand plucked out of the Fire, or brief Account of R. Kendall, who was executed at Northampton, Aug. 13. 1813, by W. P. Davies, *fourth* edition." This fellow, who is much eulogized by his biographer, denied his guilt on the scaffold, having previously confessed it to his attorney, a fact with which it clearly appears that Mr. Davies was acquainted. See also "The Conversion and penitent Death of Daniel Fell," who was executed in Guernsey, in the year 1810, for a most atrocious crime; after the rope was fixed, an anxious friend inquired, "Fell, where are you going?"—"To Heaven," was the reply. "Are you sure of it?"—"I am," were his last words.

'I have been favoured with the perusal of a MS. sermon *intended* to have been delivered at the gallows by a Calvinistic teacher (as he declared himself to be) named Simpson, who was hanged for a highway robbery, at Lancaster, April 19. 1806. He had been confined, before his last apprehension, for some other crime in Hertford gaol, where he *frequently preached* to the convicts, and by his hypocritical demeanour, obtained liberty enough to enable him to escape. He was not quite 23 years of age, and in the commencement of his sermon confesses that he had once been an infidel, and had particularly "reviled that devout and religious sect called Methodists." That he "had broken open more than 50 houses, stolen upwards of 30 horses, and that as for the numbers of people whom he had robbed on the highway, they exceeded his own knowledge, nay that he had been base and inhuman enough to rob his own father.—Yet that blessed be God, he has enabled him to meet the King of Terrors, not only with courage, but with triumph; being confident (says he) that I shall be no sooner absent from the body, but I shall be present with the Lord, who will meet and receive me not with a frown, but with a smile." He then addresses himself to those "blind persons who daub their Babel building with untempered mortar, and think to win heaven by moral rectitude," assuring them that "they must ever perish in that flaming ruin, which they have so justly deserved;" of all this he is enabled, "experimentally, of his own experience," to inform his auditors, "whatever letter-learned, proud goat-feeding teachers, who call converted souls enthusiasts, may say to the contrary."

'This sermon occupies fourteen closely written quarto pages; on the morning of execution he inclosed it to a friend, excusing himself from delivering it at the gallows, on account of the short time which criminals were allowed there. In his letter he assures this friend "that the fears of death are turned into hopes, and that he meets it with as much composure and pleasure, as he has done when a boy, at the thought of going to a fair or a play." The account of the chaplain who witnessed his last moments is in direct opposition to this statement; half an hour before his death, Simpson assured him that the sermon contained much, which he certainly would have suppressed, if he had supposed that his feelings

could have been such as he then experienced; and on the fatal platform he was unable to utter a single word. Yet if this deluded man had met with a fitting biographer, he would have been canonized, in "syllables of dolor," in Newspapers, Magazines, and Sixpenny Tracts.

'Long as this note is, I cannot close it without citing the words of a prelate, who both from exalted talents, and dignified station, has a right to promulgate his opinions on this subject, *ex cathedra*. The Bishop of Chester, in his late Assize Sermon, a composition admirable from the plainness of its language, and the perspicuity of its general argument, has the following passage: "The most atrocious violators of the law have lulled their consciences with some fancied experiences of faith, and they who have broken every commandment upon earth, have yet looked for their reward in heaven. Hence the composedness with which even murderers have gone from scenes of horror to the house of God. Hence the facility with which such persons have turned from shedding blood to praying. To the same cause also must we attribute that growing hardihood in crime through which convicted assassins so often deny their guilt, though almost in the presence of their Maker: and thus only can we account for that presuming audacity, with which creatures, covered with guilt, have, in their last moments, dared confidently to boast that they are ascending — from the scaffold itself — unto the right hand of God."

We must endeavour to find room for another sketch of the sad propensity to mingle "*sacra profanis*," which is so characteristic of our extravagant times:

'V. 464. — *Trumpet-Majors*.] William Weldon, trumpet-major of the Thirteenth Light Dragoons, after twenty years' service, has published his revelations and experiences, under the title of "Jehovah Nissi; the Lord my Banner." From another of his works called "Heart-melody, and Droppings of the Honey-comb," the two subjoined extracts are taken: in the first he expresses a confident hope, in imagery most appropriate to his vocation, that "although my present calling in this life forces me by order of my superiors, or the higher earthly powers, to do that which my soul hates, loathes, and abhors, on thy holy day, by forcing me to divert a giddy multitude by playing carnal music; yet thou, O Lord, wilt appear for me, and exchange this for the *silver trumpet of the Gospel*." (P. 7.)

'For the second passage it is somewhat strange if he has escaped the halberds; he talks of "being shut up in a barrack amidst the offspring of the man of sin, and sons of perdition; and many other sons of pride; yea amongst human lions and bears." (P. 24.) Surely to call gentlemen who wear a sword, and hold his Majesty's commission, "sin, perdition, pride, lions, and bears," must be cognizable by the Mutiny Act. His officers, however, punished him another way, for "one Lord's Day," though it was "foul weather," and he "put on his great coat to prevent getting wet,

as he had three miles to ride to the preaching, and was subject to the rheumatism, yet the sons of pride forbade it," (P. 12.)

'The army is rapidly evangelizing; their reformation perhaps may be attributed to the publication of Mr. Jones's "Letter to a Young Gentleman," in which the ingenious author recommends that "our troops, as they march into Hyde Park, should be attended by the chaplain of the regiment, on horseback, repeating the 144th Psalm:—Blessed be the Lord my strength, who teacheth my hands to war, and my fingers to fight." The reader need not be reminded that the times *have* existed, in which such exhibitions were far from uncommon, still less need he be told of the tremendous consequences which resulted from this union of religious and military fanaticism.'

We are very sorry to be compelled to omit what follows about 'Christian Drummers,' the 'Serious Hoy,' and the 'Sailor's Ark.' They are all lamentable indications of the puritanical spirit of the age; and they shew, in various colours, the excess of enthusiasm to which a large portion of all orders of men in Great Britain now seems to be hurried.

The subscriptions, whether of servants or of school-boys, to the Bible and Church Missionary Societies, call down the anger of this author; who styles them neither more nor less than '*robberies*;' and who observes, when considering the degree of influence thus used over the poor and the ignorant, that, as we have laws to punish the extortion of money by bodily fear, we ought to add to the statute a penalty for the same extortion by means of alarming the soul. Here he may surely be considered as going too far.

In taking farewell of this writer, however, we would encourage him to proceed in his exposure of all religious follies and impostures that occur to his observation; in which he will obtain the concurrence of all honest and thinking men, of every sect or denomination.

ART. XII. *An Experimental Inquiry into the Laws of the Vital Functions*, with some Observations on the Nature and Treatment of internal Diseases; by A. P. Wilson Philip, M. D. F.R.S. E., &c. &c. In part re-published, by Permission of the President of the Royal Society, from the Philosophical Transactions of 1815 and 1817, with the Report of the National Institute of France, on the Experiments of M. le Gallois, and Observations on that Report. 8vo. pp. 347. Boards. Underwood.

WITH the subject of Dr. Philip's inquiry, and with some of the experiments and reasoning by which he endeavoured to establish his opinions, our readers have been already

ready made acquainted by our account of the volumes of the Philosophical Transactions mentioned in the title-page: but we must now proceed to review the more extended detail of facts and arguments, which the author has brought forwards in the prosecution of the investigation. He divides his treatise into two parts: in the first, he proposes to give a view of the state of our knowledge respecting the principle on which the action of the sanguiferous system depends, and the connection between it and the nervous system, previously to the performance of his own experiments; and in the second to relate those experiments, and point out the inferences which he conceives may be deduced from them. In order to accomplish the first object, Dr. P. thought that he could not do better than translate the report of the Committee of the National Institute of France, concerning M. le Gallois' Experiments on the Vital Functions; because this report contains a very correct account of the subject, and also presents us with a view of the general object of Le Gallois' inquiry and the conclusions which he drew from it, to controvert which is one main design of the present author.

In consequence of the importance of its functions, and the facility of performing experiments on it, the heart has generally been made the particular point of inquiry, by all those who have entered into the controversy respecting the connection which subsists between the muscular and the nervous systems. Haller thought that they were not necessarily connected together, but that the motion of the heart depended on the irritability of its fibres, stimulated directly by the blood, without the intervention of the nerves. His principal arguments were that the heart continues to beat when the nerves going to it are completely divided; that it even contracts when removed from the body; and that it cannot be stimulated by irritating the nerves that go to it, which may be done with the muscles of voluntary motion. The most powerful of the objections urged against Haller were, that the heart is provided with nerves, which according to his system would be of no use; and that it is powerfully influenced by mental emotions, which can operate only through the medium of the nerves. Haller appears to have been not only embarrassed by these objections, but unable to give a satisfactory answer to them; and they seem to have induced most of the modern physiologists to adopt the contrary side of the question, although they have proceeded on various grounds, and often on principles that were very inconsistent with each other. In this state of uncertainty, M. le Gallois endeavoured to put the controversy to the issue of experiment, and was led

to conclude, against the opinion of Haller, that the nerves are essentially concerned in the action of the heart. His experiments appear to have been contrived with considerable ingenuity; and those which were performed before the Committee were such as to convince them of the accuracy of his processes, so that they announced four very important physiological positions, which they regarded as being completely established by them. These are:

‘ 1st. That the cause of all the motions of inspiration has its seat near that part of the medulla oblongata which gives rise to the nerves of the eighth pair.

‘ 2d. That the cause which animates each part of the body resides in the part of the spinal marrow from which the nerves of that part are derived.

‘ 3d. That in like manner it is from the spinal marrow that the heart derives its life and its powers; but, from the whole spinal marrow, and not merely from any particular part of it.

‘ 4th. That the great sympathetic nerve takes its rise from the spinal marrow, and that the particular character of that nerve is to bring every part to which it is distributed under the immediate influence of the whole nervous power.’

These positions, as the Committee think, remove all the difficulties that have hitherto attached to the subject, and reconcile the facts of Haller with the objections brought against them by his opponents: observing that they afford an explanation of the following points; viz. they shew why the heart receives nerves, why it is influenced by the passions, why it is not subjected to the will, and why the circulation can be supported in acephalous or decapitated animals. In conclusion, the Committee speak of M. le Gallois’ experiments in the most favourable terms; even asserting that his essay is “one of the most excellent, and certainly the most important, which has appeared in physiology, since the learned experiments of Haller,” and that “it will make an epoch in that science over which it must spread a new light.” To this very flattering testimony Dr. Philip cannot give his assent: he admits much merit in the experiments, and regards M. le Gallois as the discoverer of many important facts: but he considers the system as extremely imperfect; and indeed he goes so far as to controvert every one of the fundamental positions which we have quoted above. After some remarks on these positions, and having pointed out what he conceives to be inconsistencies or imperfections in the experiments or arguments, Dr. Philip proceeds to detail an account of his own investigations.

We

We are thus brought to the second part of the work, containing the experiments made with a view to ascertain the laws of the vital functions. It occupies four-fifths of the volume, and is arranged into a number of separate chapters; in which different series of experiments are related, and the proper inferences are drawn from them. As the detail of the whole would carry us far beyond our accustomed limits, we can only mention the manner in which Dr. Philip treats a few of the topics that seem to us the most interesting or important; or specify where any point is established, which is most at variance with the generally received opinion.

The first chapter contains experiments made with a view to observe what effect is produced on the heart, by the total destruction of the brain and spinal marrow. It seemed to be unequivocally proved, after this operation, by the motion of the heart and arteries, that they retained their full power, so as to shew that they act by a faculty inherent in themselves. At the same time, many facts, and especially the influence of the passions on the circulation, prove that the nervous and the muscular systems are connected; and the author proceeds, in the 2d chapter, to shew in what this connection consists. He found, by a number of experiments, in which chemical agents were applied to the brain or the spinal marrow, that the action of the heart was very obviously affected; thus involving a contradiction, because, after having first manifested that the heart acted independently of the nerves, it now appears that it is much influenced by the state of the nervous system. This seeming inconsistency he endeavours to reconcile by examining the action of the voluntary muscles; and, from experiments performed on these parts, he concluded that their power is independent of the nervous system, because, by the local application of a proper stimulus, they contract when their nerves are all divided. The fair inference from this principle is that the voluntary and involuntary muscles possess essentially the same power, their irritability or inherent contractility, but that this power is called into action by different means: in the voluntary muscles, always by the nervous influence through the medium of the will; while the involuntary muscles generally act in consequence of the direct application of stimuli, but are, under certain circumstances, capable of receiving the influence of the nervous power. The principle of Haller is, therefore, established, that the blood, acting on the heart, is the immediate cause of its contraction, without the intervention of the nerves: but it is so far modified as to shew that this organ is under the influence of the nervous system, and may have its
action

action affected by stimulants or sedatives applied to the brain or the spinal marrow.

Dr. Philip likewise draws another inference from his experiments, with respect to the nature of the connection between the brain and the spinal marrow, which he supposes is analogous to that which subsists between the muscles and the nerves. The spinal marrow is capable of acting independently of the brain, yet its functions may be influenced through the medium of the brain.

‘ Thus,’ the author remarks, ‘ the excitability of the spinal marrow bears the same relation to the brain, which that of the muscles bears to the spinal marrow and its nerves, and I would add all nerves distributed to muscles, some of which arise from the brain, but seem to bear precisely the same relation to the sensorium and to the muscles, with those which arise from the spinal marrow. Even M. le Gallois, although his experiments lead to an opposite conclusion, observes, that the brain seems to act on the spinal marrow as the latter does on the parts it animates. We know the peculiar office of the brain, by observing what functions are lost by its removal, the sensorial functions. The nervous, then, obeys the sensorial system, in the same way in which the muscular obeys the nervous system; but as the muscular power has an existence independent of the nervous, so has the nervous an existence independent of the sensorial power.’

What the exact meaning is which the author attaches to the terms *nervous* and *sensorial*, we shall see more clearly in a subsequent part of his inquiry.

The next train of experiments, which Dr. Philip performed, were intended to discover what are the laws which regulate the action of stimuli on the muscular parts, when applied to the brain and the spinal marrow; and, particularly, to compare the effect on the voluntary and the involuntary muscles. Among the inferences drawn from these experiments, the following are the most important. Mechanical stimuli seem to act more powerfully on the voluntary, and chemical stimuli on the involuntary muscles: but neither of the species of stimuli, when applied to the brain or the spinal marrow, will affect the voluntary muscles, unless they are made to act near the origin of the nerves which are destined to these muscles. The heart is affected by the application of a less powerful stimulus to the brain or the spinal marrow than the voluntary muscles; irregular actions are often produced in the voluntary muscles, but never in the heart; and when the voluntary muscles are no longer capable of being called into action, by stimuli applied to the brain or the spinal marrow, the heart still remains capable of being excited. The author observes

observes that many of these differences may be referred to one principle; 'that the heart is excited by all stimuli applied to any considerable part of the brain or spinal marrow, while the muscles of voluntary motion are only excited by intense stimuli applied to certain small parts of these organs,' the parts near the origin of the nerves and the spinal marrow. Many of the experiments, as far as we have now traced them, appear to be very decisive in their results, and fully to justify the inferences deduced from them: but we cannot altogether speak with so much confidence respecting those which follow, on the action of the secretory vessels, and the relation which it bears to the nervous system.

We have seen, in the experiments already related, that both the voluntary and the involuntary muscles possess the contractile power, independently of the nervous influence; although, in the case of the former, the nervous influence is the stimulus by which, in their ordinary state, they are made to contract: — but the author was led to a different inference with respect to the action of the secretory organs. He formed this conclusion principally from experiments made on the stomach, by dividing the nerves which lead to this organ, when the secretions peculiar to it seemed not to be regularly produced, and the food which was received into it remained undigested: but it was found that, by subjecting the stomach to the influence of galvanism, the process of digestion was promoted, and was indeed brought to its natural state, as if the nerves had not been divided. Having related these experiments, the author asks whether it be possible to explain their results 'without admitting the identity of the nervous influence and galvanism? We must either,' he says, 'admit this, or that there is another power, capable of performing the most characteristic and complicated functions of the nervous system.' He makes a distinction between the action of the vessels which carry the fluids for the purpose of secretion, and the power by which the fluids thus conveyed have their properties altered. The action of the vessels of the organs of secretion, like those of the circulation generally, are independent of the nervous system; and secretion fails when the influence of this system is withdrawn, 'not because the vessels of secretion fail to perform their office, but because the necessary changes on the fluids which they supply no longer take place.'

These experiments on the secretory organs do not appear to us to lead so directly to the conclusions drawn from them, as those which are related in the former part of the treatise; nor do they convince us of the identity of the nervous influence and galvanism. They shew that, in a certain degree, galvanism
supplied

supplied the place of this influence, or produced some change in the parts which were subjected to it that enabled them to supply it, but they go no farther. Several conjectures might be formed on this subject, but they are no more than conjectures, and our limits will not permit us to discuss so important a topic at full length. We shall only farther observe concerning it, that the operation of the electric fluid in the living body is in many respects obscure, and requires much elucidation.

Next occur a number of experiments on the action of the intestinal canal, on digestion, and on animal temperature. Many of the observations on the different parts of the process of digestion are interesting, and throw considerable light on the mechanical part of the operation. The chapter on animal temperature we regard as the least meritorious part of the volume, and indeed as unworthy of the character of philosophical investigation which is manifested in the first part of the inquiry. That the nervous influence in some way affects the evolution of caloric appears decided, although the mode of its action is very obscure: but the experiments made to prove that caloric is secreted from arterial blood, by galvanism, are altogether inconclusive.

We have alluded above to a division of the vital powers which the author makes, that is in some measure peculiar to himself. He conceives that there are three vital powers of distinct operation, and not directly depending on each other; viz. the sensorial, the nervous, and the muscular. The latter is generally recognized, and requires no explanation: the two others are thus described:

‘The nervous power, it appears from many of the experiments which have been related, acts only as a stimulus to the muscular fibre. It performs the more complicated functions of preparing the various secreted fluids, and causing an evolution of caloric from the blood; and is the means by which impressions are conveyed to the sensorium.

‘The sensorial power, as far as it is concerned in the functions of mere animal life, appears to consist wholly in receiving impressions from, and communicating them to the nervous power.’

The seat of these two powers is not so clearly defined, according to the author's observation, as the operation: they may each be traced to both the brain and the spinal marrow: but he supposes ‘that the sensorial power resides chiefly in the brain, and the nervous in the spinal marrow.’ There is probably some foundation for this distinction between the nervous and the sensorial power; and indeed most physiologists have admitted some kind of arrangement or modification of the

the functions of the nervous system, which may be considered as equivalent to it: but we think it is very doubtful how far they ought to be classed as distinct powers. This, however, is a question of little consequence, compared with the correct establishment of the facts.

Some chapters of Dr. Philip's work remain which we have not examined; one on the use of the ganglion; and one on the relation which the different functions bear to each other, and the order in which they cease in dying: besides a long account of the application of the foregoing experiments and principles to the pathology or treatment of diseases of various kinds. These, however, we must pass without examination; and we shall conclude our review by observing, with respect to the character of the work generally, that it possesses great merit; that it developes, as we think, successfully, many obscure parts of the animal economy; that the experiments are generally well contrived, and seem to have been carefully executed; and that in many cases the correct inference is deduced from them. We do not, indeed, agree with the author in all his conclusions, nor do we regard all parts of the book as equally valuable: but, as a whole, we strongly recommend it to the careful study of those who are interested in the pursuit of physiological science. We may add that many of the strictures on M. le Gallois' treatise appear to be well founded; and that Dr. Philip is completely successful in his manner of controverting several of the conclusions of his antagonist.

It is to be regretted that a work of so much importance is very incorrectly printed.

ART. XIII. *Curiosities of Literature*, in 3 Volumes. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 490. 12s. Boards. Murray.

THE preceding volumes of this entertaining work have been noticed by us at considerable length*, and the present continuation by no means falls short of the previous parts. Mr. D'Israeli is and deserves to be a popular writer: his sentiments are liberal; his topics are various; his illustrations display command of reading; and his style, if sometimes peculiar, is usually lively and poignant. He is perhaps rather the literate than the erudite, rather the well-read than the well-schooled man, and more versed in the modern than in the antient languages; on which account he willingly

* See Rev. vol. vii. N. S. p. 270.; vol. xii. p. 177. and 276.; vol. xvi. p. 475., and vii. p. 66.

talks of Gothic men, manners, and things, — not of what can no longer be imitated with advantage either in literary or practical life: — he has looked into the living and moving world, and has profited by the progress of modern literature and opinion.

As our readers already know, these 'Curiosities of Literature' consist of a series of short lucubrations, not dissimilar from those of the *Spectator* or *Rambler*, but arising more out of citations from unusual books, and less from the original reflections of the author. If it had been deemed expedient to give a title to this work, which should have favoured its being included in future collections of the British Essayists, the *Antiquary* might have been a proper name; since nearly all the papers contain illustrations derived from an antiquated and recondite literature. We give a list of the subjects treated.

'The Pantomimical Characters. Extempore Comedies. Mas-singer, Milton, and the Italian Theatre. Songs of Trades, or Songs for the People. Introducers of Exotic Flowers, Fruits, &c. Usurers of the Seventeenth Century. Chidiack, Titchbourne (a Roman Catholic's History). Elizabeth and her Parliament. Anecdotes of Prince Henry the Son of James I. when a Child. The Diary of a Master of the Ceremonies. Diaries, Moral, Historical, and Critical. Licensers of the Press. Of Anagrams and Echo Verses. Orthography of Proper Names. Names of our Streets. Secret History of Edward Vere, Earl of Oxford. Ancient Cookery and Cooks. Ancient and Modern Saturnalia. Reliquiæ Gethinianæ. Robinson Crusoe. Catholic and Protestant Dramas. The History of the Theatre during its Suppression. Drinking Customs in England. On Literary Anecdotes. Condemned Poets. Acajou and Zirphile, of its Preface. Tom o'Bedlams. Introduction of Tea, Coffee, and Chocolate. Charles the First's Love of the Fine Arts. Secret History of Charles I. and his Queen Henrietta. The Minister — the Cardinal Duke of Richelieu. The Minister — Duke of Buckingham, Lord Admiral, Lord General, &c. &c. &c. Felton the Political Assassin. Johnson's Hints for the Life of Pope.'

In the paper on Anagrams, the best of all is omitted; that with which Jablonski welcomed the visit of Stanislaus King of Poland, and his noble relatives of the house of Lescinski, to the annual examination of the students under his care at the gymnasium of Lissa. The recitations closed with an heroic dance, in which each youth carried a shield inscribed with a legend of the letters contained in the words *Domus Lescinia*. After a new evolution, the boys exhibited the words *Ades incolumis*: next, *Omnis es lucida*: fourthly, *Omne sis lucida*: fifthly,

fifthly, *Mane sidus loci*: sixthly, *Sis columna Dei*, and at the conclusion, *I scande solium*.

One of the most agreeable and instructive of these disquisitions is that which relates to Licensers of the Press; and, as the system of preventive censure is still perniciously followed on the Continent and audaciously defended by various ministers of the allied sovereigns, one of whom has put into the mouth of royalty a systematic denunciation of "culpable opinions," it is worth while to revert to the history of the antient mischiefs of a superintended press: lest here, too, intolerance should protrude his extinguisher, or under the mask of piety aim his dagger at liberty and truth.

' In the history of literature, and perhaps in that of the human mind, the institution of the Licensers of the Press, and Censors of Books, was a bold invention, designed to counteract that of the Press itself; and even to convert this newly-discovered instrument of human freedom, into one which might serve to perpetuate that system of passive obedience, which had so long enabled Modern Rome to dictate her laws to the universe. It was thought possible in the subtilty of Italian *Astuzia* and Spanish Monachism, to place a centinel on the very thoughts, as well as on the persons of authors; and in extreme cases, that books might be condemned to the flames, as well as heretics.

' Of this institution, the beginnings are obscure, for it originated in caution and fear; but as the work betrays the workman, and the national physiognomy the native, it is evident that so inquisitorial an act could only have originated in the Inquisition itself. However feeble, or partial, may have been the previous attempts, it assumed its most formidable shape in the Council of Trent, when some gloomy spirits from Rome and Madrid, where they are still governing, foresaw the revolution of this new age of books. The triple-crowned Pontiff had in vain rolled the thunders of the Vatican to strike out of the hands of all men the volumes of Wickliffe, of Huss, and of Luther, and even menaced their eager readers with death. At this Council, Pius IV. was presented with a catalogue of books of which they denounced that the perusal ought to be forbidden: his bull not only confirmed this list of the condemned, but added rules how books should be judged. Subsequent Popes enlarged these catalogues, and added to the rules, as the monstrous novelties started up. Inquisitors of books were appointed; at Rome they consisted of certain cardinals and "the master of the holy palace;" and literary inquisitors were elected at Madrid, at Lisbon, at Naples, and for the Low Countries; they were watching the ubiquity of the human mind. These catalogues of prohibited books were called *Indexes*; and at Rome a body of these literary despots are still called "the Congregation of the Index." The simple *Index* is a list of condemned books never to be opened; but the *Ex-purgatory*

purgatory Index indicates those only prohibited till they have undergone a purification. No book was to be allowed on any subject, or in any language, which contained a single position, an ambiguous sentence, even a word, which, in the most distant sense, could be construed opposite to the doctrines of the supreme authority of this Council of Trent; where it seems to have been enacted, that all men, literate and illiterate, prince and peasant, the Italian, the Spaniard, and the Netherlander, should take the mint-stamp of their thoughts from the Council of Trent, and millions of souls be struck off at one blow, out of the same used mould.

“The sages who compiled these indexes, indeed, long had reason to imagine that passive obedience was attached to the human character; and therefore they considered, that the publications of their adversaries required no other notice, than a convenient insertion in their indexes. But the heretics diligently reprinted them with ample prefaces and useful annotations; Dr. James, of Oxford, republished an Index with due animadversions. The parties made an opposite use of them: while the Catholic crossed himself at every title, the heretic would purchase no book which had not been indexed. One of their portions exposed a list of those authors whose heads were condemned as well as their books: it was a catalogue of men of genius.

“The results of these Indexes were somewhat curious. As they were formed in different countries, the opinions were often diametrically opposite to each other. The learned Arias Montanus, who was a chief Inquisitor in the Netherlands, and concerned in the Antwerp Index, lived to see his own works placed in the Roman Index; while the Inquisitor of Naples was so displeased with the Spanish Index, that he persisted to assert, that it had never been printed at Madrid! Men who began by insisting that all the world should not differ from their opinions, ended by not agreeing with themselves. A civil war raged among the index-makers; and if one criminated, the other retaliated. If one discovered ten places to be expurgated, another found thirty, and a third inclined to place the whole work in the condemned list. The Inquisitors at length became so doubtful of their own opinions, that they sometimes expressed in their licence for printing, that “they tolerated the reading, after the book had been corrected by themselves, till such time as the work should be considered worthy of some farther correction.” The expurgatory Indexes excited louder complaints than those which simply condemned books; because the purgers and castrators, as they were termed, or, as Milton calls them, “the Executioners of Books,” by omitting or interpolating passages, made an author say, or unsay, what the Inquisitors chose; and their editions, after the death of the authors, were compared to the erasures or forgeries in records; for the books which an author leaves behind him, with his last corrections, are like his last will and testament, and the public are the legitimate heirs of an author’s opinions.

“The

' The whole process of these expurgatory Indexes, that "takes through the entrails of many an old good author, with a violation worse than any could be offered to his tomb," as Milton says, must inevitably draw off the life-blood, and leave an author a mere spectre! A book in Spain and Portugal passes through six or seven courts before it can be published, and is supposed to recommend itself by the information, that it is published with *all* the necessary privileges. Authors of genius have taken fright at the gripe of "the Master of the holy palace," or the lacerating scratches of the "Corrector-general por su Magestad." At Madrid and Lisbon, and even at Rome, this licensing of books has confined most of their authors to the body of the good fathers themselves. This system has prospered to admiration, in keeping them all down to a certain meanness of spirit, and happily preserved stationary the childless stupidity through the nation, on which so much depends.' —

' When the insertions in the Index were found of no other use than to bring the peccant volumes under the eyes of the curious, they employed the secular arm in burning them in public places. The history of these literary conflagrations has often been traced by writers of opposite parties; for the truth is, that both used them: zealots seem all cut out of one paste, whatever be their party. They had yet to learn, that burning was not confuting, and that these public fires were an advertisement by proclamation. The publisher of Erasmus's Colloquies intrigued to procure the burning of his book, which raised the sale to twenty-four thousand.' —

' In the reign of Henry VIII. we seem to have burnt books on both sides, in that age of unsettled opinions; in Edward's, the Catholic works were burnt; and Mary had her pyramids of Protestant volumes; in Elizabeth's, political pamphlets fed the flames; and libels in the reign of James I. and his sons. —

' France cannot exactly fix on the æra of her *Censeurs de Livres*; and we ourselves, who gave it its death-blow, found the custom prevail without any authority from our statutes. Britain long groaned under the leaden stamp of an *Imprimatur* *, and long witnessed men of genius either suffering the vigorous limbs of their productions to be shamefully mutilated in public, or voluntarily committing a literary suicide in their own manuscripts. Camden declared that he was not suffered to print all his Elizabeth; but he sent those passages over to De Thou, the French historian, who printed his history faithfully two years after Camden's first edition, 1615. The same happened to Lord Herbert's History of Henry VIII., which has never been given according to the original. In the Poems of Lord Brooke, we find a lacuna of the first twenty pages: it was a poem on Religion, cancelled by the order of Archbishop Laud. The great Sir Matthew Hale

* Oxford and Cambridge still grasp at this shadow of departed literary tyranny; they have their licensers and their *imprimatura*.'

ordered that none of his works should be printed after his death ; as he apprehended, that, in the licensing of them, some things might be struck out or altered, which he had observed, not without some indignation, had been done to those of a learned friend ; and he preferred bequeathing his uncorrupted MSS. to the Society of Lincoln's Inn, as their only guardians : hoping that they were a treasure worth keeping. Contemporary authors have frequent allusions to such books, imperfect and mutilated at the caprice or the violence of a licenser.

' The laws of England have never violated the freedom and the dignity of its press. " There is no law to prevent the printing of any book in England, only a decree in the Star-chamber," said the learned Selden. Proclamations were occasionally issued against authors and books ; and foreign works were, at times, prohibited. The freedom of the press was rather circumvented, than openly attacked, in the reign of Elizabeth ; who dreaded those Roman Catholics who were disputing her right to the throne, and the religion of the state. Foreign publications, or " books from any parts beyond the seas," were therefore prohibited. The press, however, was not free under the reign of a sovereign, whose high-toned feelings, and the exigencies of the times, rendered her as despotic in *deeds*, as the pacific James was in *words*. Although the press had then no restrictions, an author was always at the mercy of the government. Elizabeth too had a keen scent after what she called treason, which she allowed to take in a large compass. She condemned one author (with his publisher) to have the hand cut off which wrote his book ; and she hanged another. It was Sir Francis Bacon, or his father, who once pleasantly turned aside the keen edge of her real vindictiveness ; for when Elizabeth was inquiring, whether an author, whose book she had given him to examine, was not guilty of treason ? he replied, " Not of treason, Madam ; but of robbery, if you please ; for he has taken all that is worth noticing in him, from Tacitus and Sallust." With the fear of Elizabeth before his eyes, Holinshed castrated the volumes of his history. When Giles Fletcher, after his Russian embassy, congratulated himself with having escaped with his head, and, on his return, wrote a book called " The Russian Commonwealth," describing its tyranny, Elizabeth forbade the publishing of the work. It is curious to contrast this fact with another better known, under the reign of William III. ; then the press had obtained its perfect freedom, and even the shadow of the sovereign could not pass between an author and his work. When the Danish ambassador complained to the King of the freedom which Lord Molesworth had exercised on his master's government, in his account of Denmark ; and hinted that, if a Dane had done the same with the King of England, he would, on complaint, have taken the author's head off : — " That I cannot do," replied the sovereign of a free people ; " but, if you please, I will tell him what you say, and he shall put it into the next edition of his

his book." What an immense interval between the feelings of Elizabeth and William ! and not a century betwixt them !

' James I. proclaimed Buchanan's history, and a political tract of his, at "the Mercat Cross;" and every one was to bring his copy "to be perusit and purgit of the offensive and extraordinary materis," under a heavy penalty. Knox, whom Milton calls "the Reformer of a Kingdom," was also curtailed; and "the sense of that great man shall, to all posterity, be lost for the fearfulness, or the presumptuous rashness of a perfunctory licenser."

' The regular establishment of licensers of the press appeared under Charles I. It must be placed among the projects of Laud, and the King, I suspect, inclined to it; for, by a passage in a manuscript letter of the times, I find, that when Charles printed his speech on the dissolution of the parliament, which excited such general discontent, some one printed Queen Elizabeth's last speech, to accompany Charles's. This was presented to the King by his own printer, John Bill, not from a political motive, but merely by way of complaint, that another had printed, without leave or licence, that which, as the King's printer, he asserted was his own copy-right. Charles does not appear to have been pleased with the gift, and observed, "You printers print any thing." Three gentlemen of the bed-chamber, continues the writer, standing by, commended Mr. Bill very much, and prayed him to come oftener with such rarities to the King, because they might do some good.

' One of the consequences of this persecution of the press was, the raising up of a new class of publishers, under the government of Charles I., those who became noted for, what was then called, "unlawful and unlicensed books." Sparkes, the publisher of Prynne's "*Histriomastix*," was of this class. The Presbyterian party in parliament, who thus found the press closed on them, vehemently cried out for its freedom; and it was imagined, that when they had ascended into power, the odious office of a licenser of the press would have been abolished; but these pretended friends of freedom, on the contrary, discovered themselves as tenderly alive as the old government, and maintained it with the extremest vigour. Such is the political history of mankind.

' The literary fate of Milton was remarkable; his genius was castrated alike by the monarchical and the republican government. The royal licenser expunged several passages from Milton's history, in which Milton had painted the superstition, the pride, and the cunning of the Saxon monks, which the sagacious licenser applied to Charles II. and the bishops; but Milton had before suffered as merciless a mutilation from his old friends the Republicans; who suppressed a bold picture, taken from life, which he had introduced into his History of the Long Parliament and Assembly of Divines. Milton gave the unlicensed passages to the Earl of Anglesea, a literary nobleman,

the editor of Whitelocke's Memorials; and the castrated passage, which could not be licensed in 1670, was received with peculiar interest, when separately published in 1681.* "If there be found in an author's book one sentence of a ventrous edge, uttered in the height of zeal, and who knows whether it might not be the dictate of a divine spirit, yet not suiting every low decrepid humour of their own, they will not pardon him their dash."

'This office seems to have lain dormant a short time under Cromwell, from the scruples of a conscientious licenser, who desired the Council of State in 1649, for reasons given, to be discharged of that employment. This Mabot, the licenser, was evidently deeply touched by Milton's address for "The Liberty of Unlicensed Printing." The office was, however, revived on the restoration of Charles II.; and through the reign of James II. the abuses of licensers were unquestionably not discouraged; their castrations of books reprinted appear to have been very artful; for in reprinting Gage's "Survey of the West Indies," which originally consisted of twenty-two chapters, in 1648 and 1657, with a dedication to Sir Thomas Fairfax,—in 1677, after expunging the passages in honour of Fairfax, the dedication is dexterously turned into a preface; and the twenty-second chapter being obnoxious for containing particulars of the artifices of "the papalins," in converting the author, was entirely chopped away by the licenser's hatchet. The castrated chapter, as usual, was preserved afterwards separately. Literary despotism at least is short-sighted in its views, for the expedients it employs are certain of overturning themselves.'

More good matter is to be found in this disquisition: but, as it is too long for entire transcription, we must refer to Mr. D'Israeli's volume. We may remark, *en passant*, that our patriots have not done sufficient justice to the memory of Mabot; who, while a licenser, endeavoured to render his office a sinecure; and who took the earliest opportunity of resigning the employment, when he could entertain a hope that it would be wholly suppressed.

Some years ago, in noticing the Miscellanies of this author, we described him (vol. xxiv. p. 375.) as displaying "a vivacity and brilliancy of style, mottled with antithesis and

* It is a quarto tract, entitled, "Mr. John Milton's Character of the Long Parliament and Assembly of Divines in 1641; omitted in his other Works, and never before printed, and very seasonable for these Times. 1681." It is inserted in the uncastrated edition of Milton's prose works in 1738. It is a retort on the Presbyterian Clement Walker's History of the *Independents*; and Warburton, in his admirable characters of the historians of this period, alluding to Clement Walker, says, "Milton was even with him in the fine and severe character he draws of the Presbyterian administration."

spangled with allusion, and a tiptoe wit dancing and balancing on the brink of conceit." Time and practice have, we think, chastened his manner, and mellowed his diction; which has now less of individuality, or, to borrow his own word, of *mannerism*, but more grace, propriety, and ease. Mr. D'Israeli's writings bear a great resemblance to the *Ana* of foreign countries, and will no doubt one day be collected by himself, and exposed to the competition of a closer comparison. He has no reason to fear a mortifying verdict from the juries of reviewers who may be impannelled over his case; since few writers instruct so amusingly and amuse so instructively, or have provided the literary lounge with preferable pastime.

ART. XIV. *The Literary Character*, illustrated by the History of Men of Genius, drawn from their own Feelings and Confessions. By the Author of "Curiosities of Literature." 8vo. pp. 366. 9s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1818.

THE first edition of this agreeable but not profound work, then intitled "*Essay on the Manners and Genius of the Literary Character*," was noticed by us at considerable length in our xviiith volume, p. 380. It now appears again, shorn of many excrescences, enriched with additional anecdotes, and embellished with sounder reflections. From the preface, we learn that several of these emendations have been suggested by critical marginal notes, attached to a copy of the original publication, which was perused at Athens by Lord Byron in the years 1810 and 1811, and which has since come into Mr. D'Israeli's hands. The fifteen chapters are increased to nineteen, and the alterations are so numerous and perpetual, that even readers who are acquainted with the former book may discover novelty enough in this to repeat their perusal of it without fatigue. Want of precision in the style is one of the uncorrected deficiencies. We cannot renew an entire analysis, but must content ourselves with desultory comments.

Chapter II., on the Youth of Genius, corresponds with the fourth of the original essay, and attempts to criticise various definitions of genius, but without substituting a satisfactory description. Dr. Johnson says that genius describes "a mind of general powers, accidentally determined to some particular direction;" and Taylor, in his *Synonyms*, states that genius describes "power of representation, excellence of fancy." We should rather incline to the latter definition, as distinguishing genius from intellect in general. The human

animal has a strong tendency to *organic mimesis* *; to the imitation, with our own instruments of action, of all voluntary motions or emotions that we perceive to be going on in others. We are living echoes; and, when we hear the voice of joy, or of woe, we have a tendency to reproduce the same tone with our own articulation, or, when not aloud, with the organs of idealization at least. When we read an affecting scene, or tale, the mind is busied for a long time in devising some such situation or narration; and he who beholds a dance, or listens to music, inevitably adopts the rhythm, and internally meditates similar postures and tunes. It is in proportion to the vividness and distinctness of this mental imitation of external phenomena, that the genius is said to be strong; and this is unquestionably an effort of the imagination.

The sixth chapter, on Literary Solitude, contains many amusing anecdotes, and gives native instances of those teasing pilgrimages to the shrine of genius, which are often grievous inroads on the leisure of literature. Wieland was driven to remove from Weimar by the persecution of such intruders. The hour of meals is the time to appropriate for the interviews of curiosity; and, if a man of celebrity cannot afford the expence of hospitable reception, he might dine once in a week at an ordinary, where his admirers could at pleasure purchase the gratification of his society; and, indeed, there are ordinaries at Paris, which regularly offer gratuitous places to celebrated men for the attraction which their presence bestows on the table.

In the seventh chapter, on Meditation, the author does not employ that word in its strict sense. Meditation is an internal rehearsal, a preparation made in the mind for what is afterward to be realized by the organs of communication. To contrive a period before it is written down, to weigh its rhythm with the internal ear, to criticize its verbal expression, and to prepare it, with the instruments of the brain only, for publication, is to meditate: but Mr. D'Israeli uses *meditation* for *reflection* in general; for any occupation of the thoughts, whether preparatory to specific action or not.

At p. 277. the author seems not to have quite penetrated the spirit of Montaigne's will: he wanted Charron to marry his sister, but Charron chose only to endow her. Dyson's noble patronage of the poet Akenside is well recorded in this essay on Literary Friendships,

* Concerning this echoing or sympathetic power of the mind, in the perfection of which, genius consists, see our account of Duncan's *Philosophy of Human Nature*, vol. lxxviii. p. 242.

The concluding chapter, on the Influence of Authors, is not prepared with profound attention. There are alternations of influence, independent of excellence. When the public mind has long been busied with particular trains of idea and forms of composition, these ideas and these works cease to stimulate, for the very reason that they are familiar. The instruction, though as sound as ever, is not as operative as ever. Hence, systems have died away which were quite as useful as those which have been substituted; and classical literature was for ages superseded by productions of acknowledged inferiority. Change is the law of nature, the amusement of man, the life of authorship, and the regeneration of the world.

Mr. D'Israeli's character of James the First was reviewed in our lxxxixth volume, p. 245., and several of the general observations, which we then made, are applicable to this work also.

ART. XV. *The Vampyre; a Tale.* 8vo. pp. 84. 4s. 6d. sewed. Sherwood and Co. 1819.

THE origin of this tale, which has been improperly advertized with the name of Lord Byron as its author, is explained in an 'extract of a letter from Geneva,' inserted as a preface. After having stated Lord Byron's intimacy with several families in the neighbourhood of Geneva, the writer proceeds:

'It appears that one evening Lord B., Mr. P. B. Shelly, two ladies, and a gentleman who travelled with his Lordship as physician, after having perused a German work, entitled *Phantasmagoriana*, began relating ghost stories; when his Lordship having recited the beginning of *Christabel*, then unpublished, the whole took so strong a hold of Mr. Shelly's mind, that he suddenly started up and ran out of the room. The physician and Lord Byron followed, and discovered him leaning against a mantle-piece, with cold drops of perspiration trickling down his face. After having given him something to refresh him, upon enquiring into the cause of his alarm, they found that his wild imagination having pictured to him the bosom of one of the ladies with eyes, (which was reported of a lady in the neighbourhood where he lived,) he was obliged to leave the room in order to destroy the impression. It was afterwards proposed, in the course of conversation, that each of the company present should write a tale depending upon some supernatural agency, which was undertaken by Lord B., the physician, and one of the ladies before mentioned. I obtained the outline of each of these stories as a great favour, and herewith forward them to you, as I was assured you would feel as much curiosity as myself, to peruse the *ébauches* of so great a genius, and those immediately under his influence.'

The composition of the lady here introduced is the extravagant story of Frankenstein, which we noticed with brief censure in our Number for April 1818; and it was intended that we should consider the present tale as the *pic-nic* contribution of his Lordship: but a letter has been since published by Dr. Polidori, (the physician, we believe, mentioned in the above relation,) stating that the ground-work of the story only is Lord Byron's property, while the development belongs to the Doctor.

The superstition, on which the tale is founded, universally prevailed less than a century ago, throughout Hungary, Moravia, Silesia, and Poland; and the legends to which it gave rise were not only believed, but were made the subject of learned disputations by the divines and physicians of the times. In Dr. Henry More's Philosophical Works, and in Calmet's Dissertation on Apparitions, may be found many interesting particulars relating to this fancy; and in the latter is an ample account of its origin and progress. It was imagined that men, who had been dead for some time, rose out of their graves and sucked the blood of their neighbours, principally the young and beautiful: that these objects of their attack became pale and livid, and frequently died; while the vampyres themselves, on their graves being opened, were found as fresh as if they were alive, and their veins full of good and florid blood, which also issued from the nose, mouth, and ears, and even through the very pores of the skin. The only mode of arresting the pranks of these tormentors was by driving a stake through the heart of the vampyre; a practice frequently adopted, and during the performance of which, we are told, he uttered a horrid groan. The body was then burned, and the ashes thrown into the grave. The introduction states that this superstition is very general in the East, and is also common among the Arabians; and it contains the following account of a particular case of vampyrism, which is described as having occurred at Madreyga, in Hungary:

'It appears, that upon an examination of the commander-in-chief and magistrates of the place, they positively and unanimously affirmed, that, about five years before, a certain Heyduke, named Arnold Paul, had been heard to say, that, at Cassovia, on the frontiers of the Turkish Servia, he had been tormented by a vampyre, but had found a way to rid himself of the evil, by eating some of the earth out of the vampyre's grave, and rubbing himself with his blood. This precaution, however, did not prevent him from becoming a vampyre* himself; for, about twenty or thirty

* The universal belief is, that a person sucked by a vampyre becomes a vampyre himself, and sucks in his turn.'

days after his death and burial, many persons complained of having been tormented by him, and a deposition was made, that four persons had been deprived of life by his attacks. To prevent further mischief, the inhabitants, having consulted their Hædagni *, took up the body, and found it (as is supposed to be usual in cases of vampyrism) fresh, and entirely free from corruption, and emitting at the mouth, nose, and ears, pure and florid blood. Proof having been thus obtained, they resorted to the accustomed remedy. A stake was driven entirely through the heart and body of Arnold Paul, at which he is reported to have cried out as dreadfully as if he had been alive. This done, they cut off his head, burned his body, and threw the ashes into his grave. The same measures were adopted with the corpses of those persons who had previously died from vampyrism, lest they should, in their turn, become agents upon others who survived them.'

In the *Athenæum*, a periodical publication circulated a few years since, and the discontinuance of which was a source of regret to all who were acquainted with the liberality and talents displayed in it, an allusion was made to this tale, accompanied by the subsequent remark :

" This horrible account caused a good deal of conversation about the time when it first appeared. In page 750. of the same volume, [of the *Gentleman's Magazine*, from which it was quoted,] we find a humorous number of the paper called the Craftsman, on the conceit that the whole story of the vampyres was but a political allegory : that Arnold Paul, the heyduke, was a minister of state, and his blood the treasure he had sucked out of the public funds, &c. &c. &c. ; and in page 755. is a grave attempt to reason on the causes of so uncommon a superstition.

" It is certain that dead bodies have occasionally been dug out of the earth, which, after lying for as many years, or more, as the heyduke is said to have lain *days*, have exhibited appearances as extraordinary as those attributed to these vampyres."

If we remember rightly, the body of the unfortunate Charles I., when lately found in the vault at Windsor, bore some peculiar marks with regard to the running of blood from his neck, and the growth of his hair ; which, had the discovery been made in a more superstitious age, would have afforded matter for much speculation among priests and old women.

The visitations of these vampyres were said to be sometimes unattended by the sucking of blood, and were then merely considered as ominous of the speedy death of the persons to whom they appeared. These were evidently nothing more than the visions of a distempered imagination; to be placed on a level with the stories of previous warnings of a similar nature, to

* * Chief bailiff.

which

which many persons even now, and particularly our friends in the North, unhesitatingly pin their faith.

That great naturalist, Linné, was induced to give the name of *Vampyre Bat* to a particular variety of that animal, which he imagined to be the species that was stated to suck the blood of men and cattle. The late Dr. Shaw, in his *Zoology*, says that it is generally about a foot long, with wings extending about four feet, but is sometimes found larger; and it has been reported that specimens have been seen of six feet in extent. It has four cutting teeth both above and below, and the canine teeth are large and sharp: the tongue is pointed, and terminated by sharp prickles; and this tongue it is supposed to insert into the vein of a sleeping person in so peculiar a manner as not to excite pain; fanning the air at the same time with its wings, by which means the sleep is rendered still more profound. Dr. Shaw observes that this extraordinary statement is so solemnly related, and seemingly so well authenticated, as almost to enforce belief; and he proceeds to mention the accounts of Condamine, respecting the large bats of America, which destroyed all the great cattle introduced by the missionaries: of Bontius and Nieuhoff, relative to those of Java; of Gumilla, concerning those of the banks of the Orinoco; of P. Martyr, who speaks in the same terms of the bats of the Isthmus of Darien; and, lastly, he adds that "the self-same faculty has been time out of mind attributed to the common European bats."

Let us, however, return to the tale before us; in which the natives of England are now first made subject to the horrible attacks of Vampyres. This is not the only novelty, however, which has been introduced. As far as the present legends on the subject go, we do not find that these unwelcome guests pay more than solitary visits, or have been considered in any other light than as troubled spirits who make their offensive appearance and terrible attack, and then, nightly, return to their graves: but the author of this tale has made the vampyre-hero of it a bustling inhabitant of the world; restless and erratic; a nobleman subject to disappointments, — to pecuniary embarrassments, (p. 32.) — and even to death (p. 55.). We have still another peculiarity in the description of his appearance. His face is depicted in the tale as of a 'deadly hue, which never gained a warmer tint;' and this in direct opposition to the account of a vampyre's complexion, which is reported, by those who are learnedly cognizant of the fact, to be florid, healthy, and full of blood. For the gratification of such persons as have always made Lord B. the hero of his own tale, we extract the whole of this introductory:

ductory picture ; for which we doubt not they will say that he sat, when the writer formed the ground-work of the tale.

‘ It happened that in the midst of the dissipation attendant upon a London winter, there appeared at the various parties of the leaders of the *ton*, a nobleman, more remarkable for his singularities, than his rank. He gazed upon the mirth around him, as if he could not participate therein. Apparently, the light laughter of the fair only attracted his attention, that he might by a look quell it, and throw fear into those breasts where thoughtlessness reigned. Those who felt this sensation of awe, could not explain whence it arose : some attributed it to the dead grey eye, which, fixing upon the object’s face, did not seem to penetrate, and at one glance to pierce through to the inward workings of the heart ; but fell upon the cheek with a leaden ray that weighed upon the skin it could not pass. His peculiarities caused him to be invited to every house ; all wished to see him ; and those who had been accustomed to violent excitement, and now felt the weight of *ennui*, were pleased at having something in their presence capable of engaging their attention. In spite of the deadly hue of his face, which never gained a warmer tint, either from the blush of modesty, or from the strong emotion of passion, though its form and outline were beautiful, many of the female hunters after notoriety attempted to win his attentions, and gain, at least, some marks of what they might term affection : Lady Mercer, who had been the mockery of every monster shewn in drawing-rooms since her marriage, threw herself in his way, and did all but put on the dress of a mountebank, to attract his notice : — though in vain : — when she stood before him, though his eyes were apparently fixed upon her’s, still it seemed as if they were unperceived ; — even her unappalled impudence was baffled, and she left the field.’

A young man named Aubrey becomes the intimate of this Lord Ruthven, joins him in his travels, and they reach Rome : but here Aubrey quits his companion, in consequence of receiving information of his Lordship’s vicious and licentious character : his suspicions of which are corroborated by a discovery that he makes of an intention to seduce the daughter of a lady at Rome, whom he puts on her guard.

‘ Having left Rome, Aubrey directed his steps towards Greece, and crossing the Peninsula, soon found himself at Athens. He then fixed his residence in the house of a Greek ; and soon occupied himself in tracing the faded records of ancient glory upon monuments that apparently, ashamed of chronicling the deeds of freemen only before slaves, had hidden themselves beneath the sheltering soil or many-coloured lichen. Under the same roof as himself, existed a being, so beautiful and delicate, that she might have formed the model for a painter, wishing to pourtray on canvass the promised hope of the faithful in Mahomet’s paradise, save that her eyes spoke too much mind for any one to think she could belong

belong to those who had no souls. As she danced upon the plain, or tripped along the mountain's side, one would have thought the gazelle a poor type of her beauties ; for who would have exchanged her eye, apparently the eye of animated nature, for that sleepy luxurious look of the animal suited but to the taste of an epicure. The light step of Ianthe often accompanied Aubrey in his search after antiquities, and often would the unconscious girl, engaged in the pursuit of a Kashmere butterfly, show the whole beauty of her form, floating as it were upon the wind, to the eager gaze of him, who forgot the letters he had just decyphered upon an almost effaced tablet, in the contemplation of her sylph-like figure. Often would her tresses, falling as she flitted around, exhibit in the sun's ray such delicately brilliant and swiftly fading hues, as might well excuse the forgetfulness of the antiquary, who let escape from his mind the very object he had before thought of vital importance to the proper interpretation of a passage in Pausanias. But why attempt to describe charms which all feel, but none can appreciate ? — It was innocence, youth, and beauty, unaffected by crowded drawing-rooms and stifling balls. Whilst he drew those remains of which he wished to preserve a memorial for his future hours, she would stand by, and watch the magic effects of his pencil, in tracing the scenes of her native place ; she would then describe to him the circling dance upon the open plain, would paint to him, in all the glowing colours of youthful memory, the marriage pomp she remembered viewing in her infancy ; and then, turning to subjects that had evidently made a greater impression upon her mind, would tell him all the supernatural tales of her nurse. Her earnestness and apparent belief of what she narrated, excited the interest even of Aubrey ; and often as she told him the tale of the living vampyre, who had passed years amidst his friends, and dearest ties, forced every year, by feeding upon the life of a lovely female, to prolong his existence for the ensuing months, his blood would run cold, whilst he attempted to laugh her out of such idle and horrible fantasies ; but Ianthe cited to him the names of old men, who had at last detected one living among themselves, after several of their near relatives and children had been found marked with the stamp of the fiend's appetite ; and when she found him so incredulous, she begged of him to believe her, for it had been remarked, that those who had dared to question their existence, always had some proof given, which obliged them, with grief and heartbreaking, to confess it was true.

In course, Aubrey becomes enamoured of Ianthe, who accompanies him on many of his antiquarian researches. One of his intended excursions was to a greater distance than usual ; and Ianthe and her parents ' begged of him not to return at night, as he must necessarily pass through a wood, where no Greek would ever remain after the day had closed, on any consideration. They described it as the resort of the vampyres in their nocturnal orgies, and denounced the most heavy evils as impending

impending upon him who dared to cross their path.' Aubrey makes his promise; which, as usual with gentlemen placed in his situation, he breaks.

'He was so occupied in his research, that he did not perceive that day-light would soon end, and that in the horizon there was one of those specks which, in the warmer climates, so rapidly gather into a tremendous mass, and pour all their rage upon the devoted country. — He at last, however, mounted his horse, determined to make up by speed for his delay: but it was too late. Twilight, in these southern climates, is almost unknown; immediately the sun sets, night begins: and ere he had advanced far, the power of the storm was above — its echoing thunders had scarcely an interval of rest — its thick heavy rain forced its way through the canopied foliage, whilst the blue forked lightning seemed to fall and radiate at his very feet. Suddenly his horse took fright, and he was carried with dreadful rapidity through the entangled forest. The animal at last, through fatigue, stopped, and he found, by the glare of lightning, that he was in the neighbourhood of a hovel that hardly lifted itself up from the masses of dead leaves and brushwood which surrounded it. Dismounting, he approached, hoping to find some one to guide him to the town, or at least trusting to obtain shelter from the pelting of the storm. As he approached, the thunders, for a moment silent, allowed him to hear the dreadful shrieks of a woman mingling with the stifled, exultant mockery of a laugh, continued in one almost unbroken sound; — he was startled: but roused by the thunder which again rolled over his head, he, with a sudden effort, forced open the door of the hut. He found himself in utter darkness: the sound, however, guided him. He was apparently unperceived; for, though he called, still the sounds continued, and no notice was taken of him. He found himself in contact with some one, whom he immediately seized; when a voice cried, "Again baffled!" to which a loud laugh succeeded; and he felt himself grappled by one whose strength seemed superhuman: determined to sell his life as dearly as he could, he struggled; but it was in vain: he was lifted from his feet and hurled with enormous force against the ground: — his enemy threw himself upon him, and kneeling upon his breast, had placed his hands upon his throat — when the glare of many torches penetrating through the hole that gave light in the day, disturbed him; — he instantly rose, and, leaving his prey, rushed through the door, and in a moment the crashing of the branches, as he broke through the wood, was no longer heard.'

The female, by whose screams he had been attracted, proves to be Ianthe; who has fallen a victim to a vampyre. Aubrey is then seized with a violent fever, and is constantly attended by Lord Ruthven, who arrives about this time at Athens. Notwithstanding various suspicious circumstances in Aubrey's mind, which combined Lord R.'s image with that of a vampyre, he could not but be touched by his Lordship's apparently

rently kind feeling; and they are reconciled, and again proceed on their travels together. At last, they are attacked by robbers, when Lord R. receives a mortal wound: but, previously to his death, he induces Aubrey to swear that, for a year and a day, he will not impart his knowledge of his Lordship's crimes or decease to any living being, whatever may happen or whatever he may see. Lord R.'s body is missing on the next morning, for which Aubrey accounts by the supposition that the robbers have concealed it for the sake of the clothes. He then returns to England, where he has too soon reason to repent of his oath. He introduces his sister at court.

'The crowd was excessive—a drawing-room had not been held for a long time, and all who were anxious to bask in the smile of royalty hastened thither. Aubrey was there with his sister. While he was standing in a corner by himself, heedless of all around him, engaged in the remembrance that the first time he had seen Lord Ruthven was in that very place—he felt himself suddenly seized by the arm, and a voice he recognized too well, sounded in his ear—"Remember your oath." He had hardly courage to turn, fearful of seeing a spectre that would blast him, when he perceived, at a little distance, the same figure which had attracted his notice on this spot upon his first entry into society. He gazed till his limbs almost refusing to bear their weight, he was obliged to take the arm of a friend, and forcing a passage through the crowd, he threw himself into his carriage, and was driven home. He paced the room with hurried steps, and fixed his hands upon his head, as if he were afraid his thoughts were bursting from his brain. Lord Ruthven again before him—circumstances started up in dreadful array—the dagger—his oath.—He roused himself, he could not believe it possible—the dead rise again!—He thought his imagination had conjured up the image his mind was resting upon. It was impossible that it could be real—he determined, therefore, to go again into society; for though he attempted to ask concerning Lord Ruthven, the name hung upon his lips, and he could not succeed in gaining information.'

He next goes to a crowded assembly, where a similar rencontre occurs, and he partially loses his reason:

'His incoherence became at last so great, that he was confined to his chamber. There he would often lie for days, incapable of being roused. He had become emaciated, his eyes had attained a glassy lustre;—the only sign of affection and recollection remaining displayed itself upon the entry of his sister; then he would sometimes start, and, seizing her hands, with looks that severely afflicted her, he would desire her not to touch him. "Oh, do not touch him—if your love for me is aught, do not go near him." When, however, she inquired to whom he referred, his only answer was, "True! true!" and again he sank into a state, whence not even

even she could rouse him. This lasted many months: gradually, however, as the year was passing, his incoherences became less frequent, and his mind threw off a portion of its gloom, whilst his guardians observed, that several times in the day he would count upon his fingers a definite number, and then smile.

‘The time had nearly elapsed, when, upon the last day of the year, one of his guardians entering the room, began to converse with his physician upon the melancholy circumstance of Aubrey’s being in so awful a situation, when his sister was going next day to be married. Instantly Aubrey’s attention was attracted; he asked anxiously to whom. Glad of this mark of returning intellect, of which they feared he had been deprived, they mentioned the name of the Earl of Marsden. Thinking this was a young Earl whom he had met with in society, Aubrey seemed pleased, and astonished them still more by his expressing his intention to be present at the nuptials, and desiring to see his sister. They answered not, but in a few minutes his sister was with him. He was apparently again capable of being affected by the influence of her lovely smile; for he pressed her to his breast, and kissed her cheek, wet with tears, flowing at the thought of her brother’s being once more alive to the feelings of affection. He began to speak with all his wonted warmth, and to congratulate her upon her marriage with a person so distinguished for rank and every accomplishment; when he suddenly perceived a locket upon her breast; opening it, what was his surprise at beholding the features of the monster who had so long influenced his life. He seized the portrait in a paroxysm of rage, and trampled it under foot. Upon her asking him why he thus destroyed the resemblance of her future husband, he looked as if he did not understand her — then seizing her hands, and gazing on her with a frantic expression of countenance, he bade her swear that she would never wed this monster, for he — But he could not advance — it seemed as if that voice again bade him remember his oath — he turned suddenly round, thinking Lord Ruthven was near him, but saw no one.’

Lord Ruthven had won the heart of Miss Aubrey by his attention to her brother, and had succeeded to a new title by the death of an elder branch. After an interesting scene, describing another attempt to stop the marriage, which was rendered ineffectual by the idea of Aubrey’s madness, and in which he breaks a blood-vessel, ‘the marriage was solemnized, and the bride and bridegroom left London.’

‘Aubrey’s weakness increased; the effusion of blood produced symptoms of the near approach of death. He desired his sister’s guardians might be called, and when the midnight hour had struck, he related composedly what the reader has perused — he died immediately after.

‘The guardians hastened to protect Miss Aubrey; but when they arrived, it was too late. Lord Ruthven had disappeared, and Aubrey’s sister had glutted the thirst of a VAMPIRE!’

Such

Such is the outline of this tale; in which, whatever may be the opinion of our readers as to its general merit and interest, they will perceive several passages that are forcible, elegant, and effective. Criticism cannot look minutely on a composition produced as this was for a temporary and social purpose, with no view to be exposed to its scrutiny.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR MAY, 1819.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 16. *The Times; or Views of Society: a Poem, with Notes.* To which is added an Appendix; containing various Scenes from Four Plays, &c. &c. Preceded by a Statement of Facts. 8vo. pp. 220. 8s. Boards. Fearman. 1819.

This book will perhaps answer some good purposes; it will teach those who, although they are unacquainted with theatrical matters of any kind, yet take a leading part in the management of the affairs of Drury-Lane, that their conduct is liable to public exposure and reprobation; and authors, we think, as we have observed in our last Number, (p. 444.) have a chance of being somewhat better treated; or, at least, of getting their unexcepted MSS. back, with mitigated insolence, on account of the statement of Mr. Bucke, whose name it seems not at all necessary to suppress as the writer of the "Italians," and of the present volume.

Having thus given the author the only praise which we feel justified in allotting, we must say that his poem of 'The Times' is the dullest that these yawning days have brought before us for a long period. Indeed, Mr. Bucke seems to be unacquainted with the simplest elements of the heroic couplet, however well accustomed he may be to draw the dramatic *blank* in the lottery of literature. Witness the following lines:—

' See learn'd ignōrance—fashionable vice.'

' — enters — Hark! the boisterous shout, —

As if you were with Comus and his rout.

Pray, what did he say? 'Faith, I cannot tell.'

This degradation of Pope is very offensive: but it would be idle to attempt the correction of a writer, who has neither acquired scholarship nor natural ear to teach him even the rudiments of versification.

Every vice of the 'Times' is so caricatured in this production, as to make the author's satire applicable to nobody, and therefore wholly unfelt; — *telum imbelles, sine ictu*. His fragments of plays, also, comic or tragic, are in our judgment very mediocre; and nothing but the general poverty of the stage could make us for a moment doubt the justice of the exclusion of such a dramatist. We cannot, however, tolerate the caprice that applauds *Bavius to-day, and hisses Mævius to-morrow*.

Art. 17. *Poem*, in Commemoration of the late National Loss in the Decease of H. R. H. the Princess Charlotte Augusta of Wales and Saxe Cobourg, &c. and in Recommendation of Associations for rendering Assistance to the Lying-in Poor at their own Habitations. Dedicated to the Bishop of St. David's. By Albany Henry Christie. 4to. 6s. sewed. Sherwood and Co. 1818.

A very well-meaning but dull dedication and advertisement precede the preface to this charitable pamphlet, by courtesy yeapt poetical. When we tell our readers that the poem itself contains so many Scriptural references, that the author has found it necessary to subjoin an appendix of *eleven very closely printed quarto pages*, marking the passages in the Bible which he has had in view, they will perhaps be disposed to allow that the work must have some resemblance to a Blank Verse Concordance of the Scriptures. Blank verse is the measure here adopted; and it harmonizes well with the solemnity of the matter and manner of the author. For example:—

' What chequer'd fates have hung o'er Britain's isle,
By woes depress'd, again by hope reliev'd, —
The awful lessons which arise from these,
But chiefly that most sudden shock which now
Speaks home to ev'ry bosom, and has rous'd
More poignant feelings than all former griefs,
In sad remembrance of the mourn'd event,
Be now the effort of a weeping muse.'

Such is the beginning. Who can have any wish to become acquainted with the middle? The end, indeed, is a consummation devoutly to be wished; and we extract it for a *quietus* to our benevolent readers. Exactly the end, however, we cannot promise them; they must patiently seek for it themselves; and we can only give a sketch of the "Decline and Fall" of the poem.

' Let us then, fellow-mourners, to her shade
Bid peace, by echoing back our full assent;
And pray that never we may be without
A Prince of Brunswick's most illustrious house,
To wield our sceptre, and to guard our rights.'

Amen.

Art. 18. *Clio's Protest*; or "The Picture" varnished. With other Poems. By the late Right Honourable R. B. Sheridan. 8vo. pp. 52. 2s. 6d. Arnould. 1819.

Judging from internal evidence, the contents of this pamphlet certainly exhibit more decided marks of authenticity than that which we noticed in our Number for February last, p. 210., as being ascribed to the same eminent writer: since the frolicsome liveliness and the delicate tenderness of Sheridan's muse may be discovered in many of the passages of the four poems here published. The Introduction informs us that "Clio's Protest" and the "Ridotto" were delivered by Mr. Sheridan himself, when a resident at Bath, to the late Mr. Cruttwell, the proprietor of the "Bath Chronicle," for the purpose of publication in that journal,

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so far back as the year 1771 ;' and it adds ' that at that day there existed no dispute as to these poems being Mr. Sheridan's,—no secrecy being observed with regard to the author,' and ' that they were constantly repeated and quoted by his contemporaries as his undoubted productions.'

Clio's Protest was an answer to a miserable ballad called *The Bath Picture*, written by one Fitzpatrick, in celebration of the principal local beauties of that period. Most of the ladies named in it are now forgotten ; consequently, the poem is chiefly interesting as the production of Sheridan at the early age of twenty*, and as bearing traces of the wit, the satirical pleasantry, the elegance, and the taste, for which he was afterward so highly distinguished. Our readers perhaps may identify his hand in the answer to the two verses which we subjoin as a specimen of the style of the piece.

PICTURE.

' When *Calder* too trips down the dance,
All crowd the sweet maid to observe ;
She's distinguish'd by great complaisance,
Good sense, and a prudent reserve.
For your life don't the *Seymours* forget,
Who so rival each other all day,
That you'd not decide, should you bet,
The most lively, good-humour'd, and gay.'

PROTEST.

' But soft — brisk *Calder's* next in station,
Jigging it down to admiration :
But jigging how — perhaps you'll say —
O fear not, in the common way !
No — she's *distinguish'd* in the dance
By her *prodigious complaisance* !
Reserv'd and *prudent* as she goes,
With *good sense* waiting on her toes.
— A pretty mode of dancing this ! —
And yet for my part, gentle Miss,
I hope thy *real* feet are fleetier
Than those you halt upon in metre ;
And pay too more regard to *time*
Than he, who made you dance in rhyme.

' The *Rival Sisters* next appear !
(At least we find them rivals here) ;
But wherefore ? — Didst thou never see
Beauty's twin-sisters yet agree ?
Pause *here*, then, trifler, and you'll find
Less parity of charms than mind :
For when true sense and mild good nature,
Scarce ask the aid of youth and feature ;
When the *fair mind*, and inborn grace,
Are but denoted by the face ;

* He was born in 1751.

What need great Nature's hand to move
 The twin-possessors hearts to love?
 —Form'd in the self-same mould of heav'n,
 To each the same attractions given;
 Like polish'd mirrors they unite,
 And lend each other mutual light—
 What *Nature's* tie can *farther* do,
 Sweet *Seymours*, we behold in *you*.'

The Ridotto of Bath, a Panegyric, is a temporary production, describing the entertainment with which the New Assembly Rooms there were opened in September, 1771. It is in the form of a letter from one of the waiters at the festival to a brother waiter at Almack's; and we agree with the editor in thinking that it 'will not suffer by a comparison with the amusing vivacity of "The Bath Guide."' Our readers would not be satisfied without a sample.

' But — silence, ye hautboys! ye fiddles, be dumb!
 Ye dancers, stop instant — THE HOUR is come;
 The great — the all-wonderful hour — of EATING;
 That hour — for which ye all know you've been waiting.
 Well, the doors were unbolted, and in they all rush'd;
 They crouded, they jostled, they jockey'd and push'd:
 Thus at a mayor's feast, a disorderly mob
 Breaks in after dinner to plunder and rob. —
 I mean not by this to reflect on the gentry,
 I'd only illustrate the *mode* of their *entry*;
 For certain I am they meant no such foul play,
 But only were wishing to help us away:
 I believe too their hurry in clearing the platters
 Was all in compassion to us the poor waiters;
 In *London* I'm sure I've been kept many hours
 In dangling attendance with sweetmeats and flow'rs;
 But *here*, as if studious to ease us of trouble,
 Each guest play'd his part, as if he'd paid double;
 In files they march'd up to the sideboards, while each
 Laid hands upon all the good things in his reach;
 There stuck to his part, cramm'd while he was able,
 And then carried off all he could from the table.
 Our outworks they storm'd with prowess most manful,
 And jellies and cakes carried off by the handful;
 While some our lines enter'd, with courage undaunted,
 Nor quitted the trench till they'd got what they wanted.
 There was Mrs. *M'Ribband*, and Mrs. *Vancasket*,
 I believe from my soul they went halves in a basket;
 While lank madam *Crib'em* so work'd her old jaw,
Tom Handleflask swore she'd a pouch in her maw:
 But let not the smirking dame *Patch* be forgot here,
 Who ate like her lap-dog, and drank like an otter;
 Nor pious Miss *Churchface*, whatever 'twas brought her,
 Unless to crib cakes for her landlady's daughter;

However, the viands went off at such rate,
 A lady's toupee often knock'd down a plate,
 And many confess'd a fat citizen's belly
 A terrible stop to the progress of jelly;
 While salvers of biscuits around their ears flew,
 O'erturn'd by the whisk of an officer's queue;
 And thus in ten minutes one half of the treat
 Made a pretty check carpet squash'd under their feet.
 O 'twas pleasing to see a collection of beaux
 Parading with large macarons at their toes;
 Or a delicate nymph give a languishing reel
 On a marmalade kissing her little French heel.
 So you see, my dear *Hal*, they bore all things before 'em,
 And trampled on *sweetmeats* as well as *decorum*.'

The two remaining pieces are, 'Lines addressed to *Laura*,' (Miss Ogle, and latterly Mrs. Sheridan,) 'on the Death of her Lover, who was killed in the Engagement at the Helder,' and the epilogue to the tragedy of *Semiramis*. In the former, which has never before been published, we recognise the mind of Sheridan in the pathos with which he alludes to the lover's death, and in the indignation with which he speaks of the advisers of the war. We cannot afford room for an extract from it, because we wish to give the epilogue entire.

'Dishevell'd still like Asia's bleeding queen,
 Shall I with jests deride the tragic scene?
 No, — beauteous mourners, from whose downcast eyes
 The Muse has drawn her noblest sacrifice —
 Whose gentle bosoms, pity's altars, bear
 The crystal incense of each falling tear!
 There lives the poet's praise! No critic art
 Can match the comment of a feeling heart.
 When gen'ral plaudits speak the fable o'er,
 Which mute attention had approv'd before;
 Tho' ruder spirits love th' accusom'd jest,
 Which chases sorrow from the vulgar breast,
 Still hearts refin'd their sadden'd tints retain,
 The sigh is pleasure, and the jest is pain.
 Scarce have they smiles to honour grace, or wit,
 Tho' Roscius spoke the verse, himself had writ.
 Thus thro' the time when vernal fruits receive
 The grateful show'rs that hang on April's eve,
 Tho' every coarser stem of forest birth
 Throws with its morning beam its dews to earth;
 Ne'er does the gentle rose revive so soon,
 But bath'd in nature's tears, it droops till noon.
 O could the Muse one simple moral teach
 From scenes like these, which all who heard, might reach,
 Thou child of sympathy, whoe'er thou art,
 Who with Assyria's queen hast wept thy part, —
 Go search, where keener woes demand relief —
 Go, while thy heart yet beats with fancied grief,

Thy lip, still conscious of the recent sigh,
 The grateful tear still quiv'ring in thine eye.
 Go — and on real misery bestow
 The blest effusions of fictitious woe.
 So shall our Muse, supreme of all the Nine,
 Deserve indeed the title of Divine;
 Virtue shall own her favour'd front above,
 And pity greet her with a sister's love.

This, if not equal, is little inferior in merit to Mr. Sheridan's other pieces of a similar description.

Art. 19. *Wanted a Wife*; or, *A Cheque on my Banker*. A Comedy, in Five Acts: as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane, with universal Approbation. By W. T. Moncrieff, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Lowndes. 1819.

This title-page bears a *misnomer*, for the piece is not a *Comedy*, but a *Farce*, in five acts; and, though we may allow a farce to be as broad as it's long, we must object to its being as long as it's broad.

Art. 20. *A Roland for an Oliver*: a Farce, in Two Acts. First performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden, April 29. 1819. By Thomas Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Miller. 1819.

A plot simple, yet sufficiently bustling: incidents not extravagantly beyond probability nor insipidly common-place; characters with a spice of whimsicality and caricature; dialogue with little of sentiment and much of fun; a prevailing flow of humor and an occasional flash of wit;—these are the proper ingredients of a farcical hash. In the piece before us, few of them have been forgotten, but they have been judiciously selected, mixed up by an experienced hand, and pleasantly administered.

POLITICS.

Art. 21. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Erskine*, on such Parts of his *Armata* as relate to Corn and Wool; in which Restrictions on Importation, with their Effects on Commerce and Agriculture, and the Situation of the labouring Classes, are considered. By Philopatria. 8vo. pp. 48. Longman and Co. 1818.

A temperate and well-digested essay, to which the writer ought not to have scrupled to affix his name. He is, evidently, much read in political economy, and quotes from Dr. Smith's work various passages which completely refute the erroneous views of Lord Sheffield, and the other advocates of a high duty on foreign articles and a bounty on our own. The grand argument in this pamphlet is that agriculture and commerce are so blended and identified, that any act of parliament, which shall bring distress on the mercantile part of the community, must eventually strike with double force on the agriculturists. The profits of trade are not confined to the trader; they are shared by the farmer, the miller, and the corn-factor; in short, by every class that is employed or interested in providing for the support of the merchants and manu-

facturers. To impose, as our wool-growers demand, a duty on Spanish wool, could not fail to press hard on our clothiers, and to convert a number of them from profitable customers to the farmer into discontented paupers. It is common, says this writer, to over-rate the profits of manufacturers; and the average wages of those who are employed on cotton have not since 1817 exceeded six shillings per week, a price which can evidently admit of no diminution. The complaints of agriculturists, as being burdened with excessive poor-rates in manufacturing districts, are also greatly over-rated; because the chief manufacturing establishments are in districts of little fertility, where, in course, the pressure of the poor-rates must fall chiefly on housekeepers unconnected with the landed interest. The author adds that the distress of the years 1815 and 1816, supposed commonly to be confined to the agriculturists, was in no inconsiderable degree consequent on the embarrassment of trade; our exports to the Continent, after peace, having been made at an average loss of 20 or 30 per cent.!

Art. 22. *A Letter to Lord Holland, on Foreign Politics, from Lord John Russell.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1819.

A more ambitious title might, without impropriety, have been prefixed to this pamphlet; for, though of very limited extent, it takes a comprehensive survey of the politics of the Continent at large. The noble author begins with the Netherlands, and dwells perhaps too much on the existing discordancy between the Dutch and Belgians; a discordancy originating chiefly in religion, and admitting, in our opinion, of the gradual approximation that has taken place between Catholic and Protestant Germany. Of Prussia, he should have favourable hopes, were the court disposed to listen to the wish of the people for a free constitution. Of Russia he says comparatively little: but on the backwardness of the Austrian government, its financial mismanagement, and the absurd influence of the noble families, he expatiates with much animation. Next comes Italy; the divided state of which is matter of great regret to Lord John, although he can scarcely allow himself to be sanguine with respect to the favourite object of the Italians, the eventual union of their various states under one government. The last and most amply discussed topic is the situation of France; with which his Lordship shews himself to be perfectly acquainted, as will at once be seen by a reference to his remarks (p. 37.) on the law for parliamentary election, which has lately excited so much discussion. By that law, all persons paying 13l. a year, (corresponding to 20l. in England,) in direct taxes, have a vote in nominating a member: these are persons placed above corruption, in general, by their circumstances, and at all events by their numbers; so that the parliamentary influence of wealth and family is at present incomparably smaller in France than in England. — Lord John concludes, as he began, with some remarks on the line of policy incumbent on us towards the states of the Continent, now that the altered situation of Europe necessitates so material a deviation from the diplomacy of former days. The pamphlet is highly creditable to the opening talents of the young nobleman from whom it proceeds.

Art.

Art. 23. *A Reply to the Author of a Letter to the Right Hon. Robert Peel*, on the pernicious Effects of a variable Standard of Value. 8vo. pp. 63. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1819.

We mentioned in our Number for last month the pamphlet to which this is an answer, and we find nothing in the tract before us that requires a renewed discussion of the subject. The chief fault of the 'Reply' is its redundancy; the author not being satisfied with urging a particular point once or even twice, but returning to the charge with unwearied pertinacity, and without the slightest sympathy for the labour of his reader. To counter-balance this objection, we cannot congratulate him on the extent of his knowledge, or on the soundness of his theoretic views; yet his pages are not devoid of useful hints and notices, on topics connected with the inquiry which at present excites so much public attention. He gives, for instance, (p. 10.) a note of the relative value of bank-notes and bullion in the twelve months that elapsed between April 1816 and April 1817, when, by a singular exception from the circumstances which both preceded and followed those dates, our paper was equal to and even somewhat higher than bullion. Thus the price of bar-silver was in

April 1816	-	5s. 1½d. the oz.	Nov. 1816	only	4s. 11½d.
June	-	5s. 1d.	Jan. 1817	-	5s. 0½d.
July	-	5s. 0½d.	March	-	5s. 1d.
Oct.	-	5s. 0d.	April	-	5s. 1½d.

During this remarkable year, a general reduction of country-bank-paper had raised the value of our notes, and had made it the interest of the continental merchants to pay by remittances of specie, in preference to bills of exchange. Unluckily, the bad harvest of 1816 and the consequent importations of corn, followed as they were by large remittances to the Continent for investment in foreign funds, disturbed this happy equilibrium, caused a fall in our exchanges, and led, some time afterward, to a rapid export first of our gold and eventually of our silver coin.

The writer of this pamphlet seems to be a practical man, and to be correctly informed on some points, such as (p. 40.) the very inadequate returns obtained for our exports to the East Indies, and (p. 38.) the inability of the mercantile world to dispense with, even a part of the accommodation at present afforded them by bank-discounts: but he becomes bewildered whenever he attempts to lift himself above this familiar track, and to rise into the adventurous region of abstract views and general conclusions.

Art. 24. *Exposure of the Fallacies contained in the "Letter to the Right Hon. Robert Peel, M. P.;" with Remarks on the late auspicious Change in the Sentiments of the Earl of Lauderdale on Paper-Currency.* By Charles Wye Williams, Esq. 8vo. pp. 68. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Another and a still more prolix rejoinder to Mr. Peel's Oxford Correspondent. — This pamphlet is closely printed, and divided into six chapters; in each of which are discussed one or more leading arguments of the adverse publication, but with so little

discrimination between what is really important or otherwise, that we by no means consider it as a formidable attack on the reputation of the academic economist. The author of the 'Exposure' refuses to admit the assertion of his antagonist that bullion and coin are virtually the same in most transactions; and he even ventures (p. 34.) to maintain that paper and coin are perfectly equivalent in domestic circulation; as if our guineas were not relatively enhanced when sold for 22s. He is not more fortunate in other parts of his reasoning; such as his comments (pp. 49, 50.) on the proportion of the existing stock of bank-notes to our actual wants; or on that still more important question, the operation of an unchecked issue at home on our exchanges with foreign countries.

The notes subjoined to the text contain various extracts from the "Letter to Mr. Peel," which mode is certainly more convenient to the reader than a reference to the original: but with these are unluckily mixed up, in more places than one, remarks on topics of too trivial a nature to engage the public attention.

EDUCATION.

Art. 25. *An Introduction to the Study of German Grammar.* By P. E. Laurent, Member of the University of Paris, and Teacher of the Modern Languages in Oxford. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Mawman.

This introduction to German Grammar seems to us too concise for its purpose. The alphabet is given, with rules for its pronunciation; but the indefinite article *ein*, of which the declension is complex and exemplary, has not been inserted. In the conjugation of verbs, it is more usual to make two regular conjugations than to call that numerous class of verbs, which vary the vowel in the oblique tenses, irregular. Thus:

Siehe see, *Sah* saw, *Gesehen* seen;
Singe sing, *Sang* sang, *Gesungen* sung;

ought rather to have been classed as regular.

On the composition and derivation of words, on the laws of transposing separable prepositions, on the construction of sentences, and the variations of meaning produced by shifting the places of words, not enough is said: but all that does occur has the merit of utility, compactness, clearness, and usually of correctness. In the list (p. 65.) of primitives common to the German and English languages, we observe, however, many omissions, and some errors. In the first column, for instance, the following words are not German primitives: *Altar*, *Alaun*, *Apotheker*, *Apostel*, *Artischoken*, *Basilisk*, *Bibel*; — still they are common to the two languages. Yet, on the whole, we think that this is a convenient little book to carry in the pocket, and for the use of a beginner; and it may suffice until he is strong enough to undertake the wholly German grammar of Adelung, which is unquestionably the best analysis of this important mother-tongue.

A very ingenious table has been prefixed to the volume, which gives at one view the entire list of the several inflections to which articles,

articles, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs, are liable in their oblique forms. If such tables were formed for every language of the earth into which the Bible has been translated, a "royal road" to the knowledge of languages would be constructed, for which a long posterity of widely scattered students might be grateful.

The importance of the German language, especially to the literary class, renders every attempt to diffuse a knowledge of it worthy of praise. Of all the European tongues, it certainly contains the greatest portion of sound erudition: but it has attained in fine literature a reputation beyond its merit. If the odes of Klopstock, the ballads of Bürger, the fabliaux of Wieland, and a few plays of Schiller, Goethe, and Kotzebue, may deserve the rank of European classics, still the mass of beautiful and eloquent composition does not equal that of the older languages. Indeed, prose is of slower growth than poetry; and the Germans seem to be forsaking their best models, such as Lessing's *Fables*, and Werter's *Sorrows*, for an oriental mystical style, dangerous to clearness of thought and to foreign intelligibility.

Art. 26. *Profitable Amusements for Children, or familiar Tales.*

By the Author of "Learning better than House or Land."

Small 12mo. 2s. half-bound. Darton.

A collection of short stories on useful subjects, which may be recommended to young readers; though we would say to this writer, and to all who compose books for children, "Be thou familiar but by no means vulgar;" and we fear that the latter epithet is most applicable to the story at page 35. of 'The boy with a sweet tooth, and the girl fond of tasting;' where Luke Lickerish is described as 'slyly filching a lump of sugar,' &c. &c.

Art. 27. *Les Jeunes Vendéens; ou, Le Frère et la Sœur. Relation de Faits véritables, pour la Jeunesse. Par feu Madame Bernard.* 12mo. pp. 174. Boosey and Son. 1818.

The style and story of this book are pleasing; and, as moral tales in French, for young people, do not appear with so much frequency as those in our own language, the present work may be deemed an acquisition.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *Original Letters*, from Richard Baxter, Matthew Prior, Lord Bolingbroke, Alexander Pope, Dr. Cheyne, Dr. Hartley, Dr. Samuel Johnson, Mrs. Montague, Rev. William Gilpin, Rev. John Newton, George Lord Lyttleton, Rev. Dr. Claudius Buchanan, &c. &c.; with Biographical Illustrations. Edited by Rebecca Warner, of Beech Cottage, near Bath. 8vo. pp. 303. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Biographies of eminent men pourtray them in full dress: but collections of their private letters shew them in easier attitudes, with the velvet-cap, the night-gown, and slippers. We approach, as to the chinks of a confessional, any account of their unguarded effusions, and are prepared to overhear their secret admissions with the tolerance of confidential friends. The frank-

frankness of epistolary correspondence constitutes its charm. A book is read like a sermon, to know what ought to be thought and done; a letter is read, like a novel, to know what is thought and done. Private talk often differs from formal opinions; and it is exactly by rummaging the letter-case that we hope to detect the distinction. Accordingly, a sort of malicious gratitude attaches to those collectors who have given publicity to the remnants of departed celebrity. Traits of personal character, observations on transient occurrences, sketches of celebrated contemporaries, and concise literary comments, even though hastily and crudely expressed, may derive from their freshness an aroma, which would have evaporated in the slow process of the literary alembic. Still the rage for posthumous publication may easily be pushed too far. It may dig up anecdotes which wound; it may advertise trifles which disparage; it may fatigue the student with nugatory common-place; and it may pelt us with the paper-sweepings of a bureau, which was not worthy to inclose the correspondence of intellect. Is it of any value to prove to the public that the man of genius can feed on a potatoe, or that the man of learning must occasionally take physic? Yet how many recent editors have revealed to us nothing more?

The collector of the letters before us extends, perhaps, too far the prying spirit, the love of gossip about the dead; and she has assembled many unpublished epistles, especially from Pope, which had been wisely and respectfully rejected by former editors, on account of their insignificance, dulness, or personality. Few pieces in the collection will be found to have added either to our knowledge or to our veneration of the writers, whose cabinets are pillaged; and the remarks, miscalled illustrations, often display so little acquaintance with the topics, that the documents would have been more welcome without any comments.

In the first five-and-twenty letters, we have found nothing worth notice: but from XXVII. to XLIV. occurs a correspondence in the Hartley family, including one or two letters written by Dr. Hartley himself, which may deserve perusal. They exhibit that eminent metaphysician, however, not as a philosopher and a gentleman, but as a person who was remarkable for even a superfluity of piety and great scrupulosity of conscience. The thirty-first letter, addressed to his son David Hartley, on setting off for the Continent, is as tedious, as full of repetition, and as fit to be read from the pulpit, as Dr. Doddridge's letter to a young lady on departing for the East Indies.

Altogether, we must deem this collection of letters considerably less valuable than the selections from the Bodleian Library, noticed by us in vol. lxxiv. p. 366.; and those of Mrs. Montague, reported in vol. lxxv. p. 155.

Art. 29. *Epistolary Curiosities*, Series I.; consisting of unpublished Letters of the 17th Century, illustrative of the Herbert Family, and of the Reigns of James I., Charles I. and II., James II., and William III., from George Herbert, Elizabeth Queen of Bohemia, Edward Lord Herbert of Cherbury, Sir

Henry Herbert, Knt., Master of the Revels; the Princes Rupert and Maurice, General Fairfax, Oliver Cromwell, John Selden; General Monk, Arthur Herbert Lord Torrington, Lord Godolphin, Duke of Shrewsbury, &c. &c. With Notes and an Appendix. Edited by Rebecca Warner, &c. 8vo. pp. 214-8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Compared with the volume of Mrs. Warner's *Epistolary Selections*, noticed in the preceding article, the publication before us is of superior value; the materials have been farther fetched, and the choice has been conducted with severer criticism. The archives of the Herbert family have especially been ransacked, and documents of some value to the historian have been detected. George Herbert, Edward Lord Herbert of Cherbury, Sir Henry Herbert, and Arthur Herbert Lord Torrington, are among the principal contributors to a correspondence, which commences with the reign of James I., and extends to that of William III. We will extract two of the more curious specimens, which display the tyranny of the times.

From Lady E. Lyttleton to Henry Herbert, Esq.

Dear Harry, — I have not writ you this fortnight, hoping to have seen you before this; but hearing that you were ill, and could not come, has made me trouble you with this scribble. I suppose you have heard that Colonel Sydney has had notice of his tryall a fortnight agoe; but yesterday he was arraigned at the King's Bench, the bill being found just before he came into the court. He desired to put in a special plea against the inditement; but the judges told him, as I hear, that if his plea were overruled he could not plead after that to the inditement again, but they must proceed against him as guilty. So that he was forced to plead not guilty, and they sent him back to the Tower again, and appointed Wednesday next come sevenight for his tryall at the Court. The witnesses produced before the grand jury were Lord Howard, who you know what he says, and Mr. Shepard, the marchant, who, they say, did swear to his hand: for they say, a book was taken of his owne writing, very severely and unmannerly reflecting on the government, and designed for the carrying on this horrid and damnable plot. Though I must tell you what I hear on the other side, for 'tis said by some, that this book was writ severall yeares agoe, and is no such thing. The other witnesse is Sir Philip Loyd, who swears, they say, to the signing of the papers, &c.

I hope ere long to see you in towne, for your friends are very angry at you for staying soe long. There is a discourse as if those in the Tower would be bailed the latter end of the terme, though some say otherways, and that they'll be indited for misdemeanors, &c. Pray, if your affaires bee not very pressing, let mee see you as soon as you can. Though I would not purchase my owne happynesse by any uneasinesse to you; for I doe, and ought, to value yours above my owne satisfactiōe; a greater than the enjoying your company cannot bee ever in the desire of your most affectionate real friend and servant for ever,

E. L.

There

' There has one Speke and Bradden been took some time in custody; but they are both released upon baile, and an information put in against them in the Crown Office about Lord Essex's affair, &c. They gave 3000l. baile.'

' From Mr. Dowdeswell * to Henry Herbert, Esq.

' July 29. 1690.

' I had writt to you the last week, but that I was soe employed in mustering, and making préparations for it, that I was forced to neglect all other concerns; besides that I had nothing to tell you, but that we received a letter from the counsell, directed to my Lord Shrewsbury, and in his absence, to his deputy-lieutenants, requiring us to seize the horses of all Papists and disaffected persons, and requiring my Lord to appoint three deputy-lieutenants to judge of them; and accordingly either to returne them to their owners, or to dispose of them, as they should judge most for theyr Majesties service, and to reward and encourage the seizing of them. In observance of the order, we issued out orders to the respective captains and lieutenants of each foot company, requiringe them to make diligent search in the houses of all Papists and dissaffected persons, within the limitts of their respective companyes, and to seize the horses and arms of all such persons; and to summon all such persons to appeare before us on the 28th instant, it being yesterday, and the time to which our sessions was adjourned; att which time the several lieutenants made a returne of their warrants, by delivering in a list of what persons each lieutenant had summoned, and by causing to be brought in what horses they had found. The chief of the persons who appeared were Mr. Russell, Mr. Bartlett, Mr. Abbing-ton, Mr. Pay, Mr. Dowling, and Mr. Hanford, to all which we tendered the new oaths and the test; which being refused by them all, we committed Mr. Hanford, on account of his disrespectfull behaviour before us, to the common gaol. The rest, with Mr. Bartlett's servant, we confined to the Talbot in Sedbury, and sett a file of musqueteers upon them for a guard. There allsoe appeared above halfe a score of inferior persons, who, for the generality, were tenants, and they refusing the oaths and test, we thought fitt to putt them allsoe under confinement; but I expect that those justices who live in Worcestershire will release them this day, they being poor tenants, and truly I judge not dangerous, since the chiefe of the party are secured. There were many more summoned, who neglected to appeare; the most eminent of which were Sir William Styck, a knight, and the person who is at Mr. Bartlett's, and the Lord Fairfax, who is at my Lady Yeates, and Mr. Addis; and for those three we dispatched two parties of horse yesterday, the one under the command of Mr. Bromley's lieutenant,

* Of Pull Court, Worcestershire; ancestor of the Right Hon. William Dowdeswell, Chancellor of the Exchèquer in the years 1765 and 1766. On the monument of the latter, in Bushley Church, Worcestershire, is a long epitaph, composed by Edmund Burke.'

the other under his cornett, to seize them; and as to the rest, we have issued out warrants to all constables to apprehend them, and bring them before us on Tuesday next. The horses which were seized, seemed generally to be very meane cart-horses, and under the value of 5l. a-piece; only there was seized at Mr. Bartlett's a saddle-nag, worth about 6l., about fourteen hands and an inch high. He stands fire very well, and the horse Mr. Bromley, Mr. Lechmere, and myselfe here, judged to be forfeited, (notwithstanding we have received noe authority from my Lord Shrewsbury to appoint us to be three deputy-lieutenants to judge in the case). In all the search we have made, we have not found any armes at all. We have had here a greate alarm upon the account of the landing of the French; which, in my opinion, struck noe great terror amongst us: the generality of people being very resolute to make a vigorous opposition. I forgott to mention to you, that the oathes being tendered to the curate of Upton-upon-Seaverne, and he refusing them, we have committed him to the gaol. I beg that you will give us your accustomed favorable acceptance, it proceeding from an earnest desire to approve myselfe your most faithfull, humble servant,

RIC. DOWDESWELL.

Numerous illustrative notes are added; and an appendix of documents ensues, adapted to throw light on the preceding letters. Among these may be distinguished No. VII., an original prayer, by King Charles I., now published for the first time, from a copy in the hand-writing of Sir Henry Herbert.

In this volume, however, as in the former publication of *Miss Warner*, we have still too much. Trifles do not always become valuable for being of antient date; there are in incidents, as in apparel, some which grow mouldy and should be thrown away, and some which preserve in lasting materials the interesting costume of grandeur and nobility.

Art. 30. *Epistolary Curiosities*, Series II., and last: consisting of unpublished Letters of the 18th Century, illustrative of the Herbert Family, and of the latter Part of King William's and the earlier Part of Queen Anne's Reigns. From Lord Herbert, King William, Dukes of Shrewsbury and Newcastle, Queen Anne, Lord Godolphin, Sir Robert Sutton, Lord Somers, Lady Inchiquin, Duke of Marlborough, Joseph Addison, Dr. Robinson, Envoy to Sweden, William Greg, George Stepney, &c. &c. With Notes. Edited by Rebecca Warner. 8vo. pp. 240. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

A similar character of fidelity in transcribing, and of exactness in illustrating, still belongs to this fair editor: but still also we perceive an over-value for any trifling communication subscribed by a person of rank, which crowds the book with superfluous and uninteresting papers. We have not space to repeat selections.

Art. 31. *Letters from the Abbé Edgeworth to his Friends*, written between the Years 1777 and 1807; with Memoirs of his Life; including some Account of the late Roman Catholic Bishop of Cork, Dr. Moylan, and Letters to him from the Right Hon.

Edmu

Edmund Burke, and other Persons of Distinction. By the Rev. Thomas R. England. Crown 8vo. pp. 230. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Public attention having been in a degree excited by the *Memoirs of Abbé Edgeworth*, (M. R. Feb. 1817,) his relatives seem to have been induced to examine his remaining papers, with the view of printing all that could be in any way interesting to his admirers; a disposition which they have perhaps carried too far, several of the letters in the present little volume relating to family matters, and being illustrative rather of private than public virtues. In an historical sense, the most interesting are those (p. 38. 45. et seq.) that describe the legislative discussions relative to the clergy of France in the years 1790, 1791, &c.: the letters that follow are in a great measure a repetition of the "*Memoirs*" already noticed; and we cannot allow the editor to pass without animadversion, on finding that he has left untouched several Gallicisms and inaccuracies that might be excused in one who lived so much in France as Abbé Edgeworth, but which ought by all means to have been corrected before the MS. was committed to an English press. Another and a more unexpected fault is the occurrence of similar errors in the text of the editor, such as p. 198., 'the consolations of religion were squandered;' p. 199., 'a pestilential fever rioted on his constitution;' and p. 211., 'his friend became a most valuable missionary.' We do not, however, mean to censure the insertion of a biographical sketch (p. 166) of Dr. Moylan, the late Catholic Bishop of Cork, followed as it is by an interesting correspondence between him and Burke.—Reverting to the main subject of the book, we would intreat those of our readers who think that Christian candour and humility are not compatible with the Catholic faith, if such there be, to mark the conduct of Abbé Edgeworth; the dangers which he encountered at Paris in administering consolation to his flock; the self-denial with which he followed the fortunes of his exiled sovereign, in Poland and Russia; and, lastly, the malady which closed his career, and which arose from his zeal to befriend the sick soldiers who had been fighting against that cause to which he had devoted his life. Never did a more affecting example occur of the meekness, the charity, and the modesty which are inculcated by the Gospel.

Art. 32. *The Hundred Wonders of the World*, and of the Three Kingdoms of Nature, described according to the best and latest Authorities, and illustrated by Engravings. By the Rev. C. C. Clarke. 8vo. pp. 668. 9s. 6d. bound. Phillips.

A striking specimen of book-making ingenuity is here presented to us; the compiler having extracted a rich store of curious and wondrous matter from the most opposite sources. We have first an account of the remarkable mountains, such as Chimborazo, Hecla, and the Himalaya range, followed by a notice of Stromboli, Lipari, and other volcanos. Next come the remarkable islands and caverns, such as Staffa and Antiparos; followed by an account of earthquakes, rocks, bridges, precipices, mines, and extraneous

extraneous fossils. The next part of this formidable catalogue consists of ice-islands, ice-bergs, and other phenomena of the ocean : together with the great rivers in both hemispheres ; the principal lakes in America and Asia ; cataracts, and boiling springs. The aerial regions are afterward laid under contribution ; meteors, meteoric stones, hurricanes, monsoons, water-spouts and thunder-storms, being all introduced in due succession. Then come the wonders of the animal kingdom, the sea-serpent, the orang-outang, the Cobra de Capello, &c. ; after which the reader passes to a less dangerous theme in the wonders of art, such as the Pyramids of Egypt, the ruins of Babylon, the existing relics of the Holy Land, Greece, and Italy. Edifices less remote, and of more recent date, such as the Louvre, the Bell-rock light-house, and the Eddystone, are then described ; and the book is closed with an account of Dr. Herschel's telescope and sundry mechanical improvements, such as steam-boats, gas-lights, diving-bell, &c. These miscellaneous topics are illustrated by a number of plates, termed engravings in the title-page, but partaking more of the appearance of wood-cuts ; and the volume, though evidently of little use to the real investigator of science, may have considerable attractions for juvenile or half-informed readers, who are perpetually in quest of novelty, and whose highest gratification consists in reading and repeating tales of the marvellous.

Art. 33. *Memoirs and Remains of the late Rev. Charles Buck :* containing copious Extracts from his Diary, and interesting Letters to his Friends : interspersed with various Observations, explanatory and illustrative of his Character and Works. By John Styles, D. D. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Hamilton, &c.

The Rev. Charles Buck, who was once a bright luminary in the galaxy of Methodism, was born in the year 1771. In his early youth, he had been 'captivated by the vanities of the world,' and had once nearly killed himself by immoderate dancing. In 1785; he was placed in the office of an attorney in London, where he devoted his leisure hours to public amusements, and became particularly fond of theatrical exhibitions : but, when he was 'on the very brink of destruction,' 'the counteracting energy of Divine grace' interposed in his behalf, and rescued him from the yawning gulph. Dr. Styles indeed tells us, *totidem verbis*, that this was no less than a *miracle*. 'In truth every instance of conversion deserves this character. It is a supernatural display of the power of God, which is as contrary to the common course of Providence as the standing still of the sun and moon, and the quickening of the dead.' (P. 13.) If this be the case, miracles of this description have of late years sprung up as thick as mustard-seed. — Mr. Buck received his first 'saving impressions,' or, in other words, was miraculously converted from a sinner into a saint, as he was walking one evening with another young man to Blackfriars Bridge. Now, instead of visiting the play-house, he began 'to rummage about for a Bible' as soon as he reached home : a new world opened on him ; and he soon thought that he could not employ himself better than in con-

converting his fellow-sinners. Among others, he did not fail solemnly to intreat his mother 'to consider her own state;' and, at the same time, he 'drew up an address to the whole village, calling upon them to repent and turn to God,' (p. 28.): but, says Mr. Buck, speaking of himself with great *humility*, (a virtue, of which his conversion seems to have added *cent. per cent.* to his original stock,) 'old Adam was too hard for young *Melancthon*.' Mr. B. now forsook the law for the Gospel, commenced preacher in good earnest, and appears to have been not a little gratified by the manner in which he wielded the sword of the spirit and put Satan to his shifts. On one occasion, when he had been preaching at his native village of Hillsley, in Gloucestershire, he tells us that one man said, 'O Zur, how wonderful it is! what a *deal* of *larning* you must have to go on so for an hour, without book;' and a farmer 'was quite overcome, and so deeply affected, that he said to another as he was returning home, 'O, if I could but *praech* like *he*, I would go and *zell* all my cows, and go *praeching* all about the country.' (P. 45.) Mr. Buck adds, with his wonted modesty, that an old playmate 'received a very pleasant testimony of the *power of what he heard on that memorable evening*.' Mr. B.'s evangelical labours were terminated only by his death, 11th August, 1815.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In a letter just received from the author of "*An Autumn near the Rhine*," reviewed in our last Number, we are informed that the errors in the French quotations in that work, to which we alluded, are attributable to the printer. We have not the book before us at this moment: but, if this be throughout the case, the writer of it is still answerable to the public for its incorrect appearance; and we never supposed that the errors arose from his own ignorance of the French language.

The writer of the letter from Christchurch may be assured that he has done us as much injustice, as he imagines to have been done to him, in imputing to us *motives* and *feelings* which had no place in our minds; and that in fact the circumstances, to which he refers such impressions, were not within our recollection or knowledge at the time. So far the Editor of the M. R. can state: but he has not yet been able to communicate the note to the gentleman more immediately concerned in it, and therefore cannot make a more particular reply.

We have never seen the work mentioned in the letter from Newington.

* * The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXXVIII. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains FOREIGN LITERATURE, &c. as usual.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1819.

ART. I. *Journey from Moscow to Constantinople, in the Years 1817, 1818.* By William Macmichael, M.D. F.R.S. One of Dr. Radcliffe's travelling Fellows from the University of Oxford. 4to. pp. 280. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1819.

THE writer of this narrative appears now, we believe, for the first time before the public; and he seems perfectly aware that, amid the present superabundance of books of travels, some kind of apology is necessary for offering the detail of a tour which was performed with great rapidity, and which, when the often-visited scene of Constantinople is left out, embraced no great extent of newly surveyed country. Still, he adds, the reader may take some interest in a sketch which, however imperfect in other respects, contains an account of the rebuilding of Moscow, and communicates some recent particulars connected with the political relations of the frontier-provinces of Russia and Turkey. We are so much impressed with the value of recent information regarding a remote country like Russia, that we cheerfully accept this traveller's apology for committing his papers to the press: but we were much less disposed to pardon the publication of so short a narrative in the costly form of a quarto, until our attention was attracted by a very interesting chapter, not noticed in the title-page, containing the relation of a tour in Palestine and Syria from the pen of Mr. Legh, whose travels in Egypt and Nubia were reported, with commendation, in our Number for December, 1817. This supplement forms a very considerable addition to the value of the book; for here, as in the case of his preceding travels, Mr. L. had interesting information to lay before the public, and has shewn himself perfectly qualified to do it in an attractive manner. This division of the volume into two parts, treating of different subjects and composed by different writers, naturally leads to a corresponding arrangement of our report; and in the first part we shall speak of Moscow and the south-west provinces of Russia; in the second, of Palestine and Syria.

Dr. Macmichael proceeded from England in the autumn of 1817, and first arrested his steps at the northern capital of
REV. JUNE, 1819. I Russia.

Russia: but he very properly refrains from attempting an account of a city so often described as St. Petersburg; and his narrative begins only with his arrival at Moscow, which he reached on the 4th of December, at a moment when it was the residence of the court and the scene of magnificent festivities. He had already had occasion to see this celebrated city, having visited it in company with Mr. James, (whose travels in the north of Europe were reported in our lxxxiiid vol.) in the summer of 1814, when Moscow had scarcely begun to rise from its ruins: but in the end of 1817 the case was very different, and the work of rebuilding was in great forwardness. In Moscow, as in almost every town in the interior of Russia, the houses are not constructed of stone, and very seldom of brick, but of trunks of trees, which are supplied in abundance by the forests of a thinly peopled country; and which are brought to Moscow in great quantities, both by land and by water. There is even a market for house-materials in a finished shape, the logs being not only cut in the form required for building, but ready morticed, and exposed for sale in square or oblong masses; so that to buy, transport, and erect these materials into a dwelling is often the labour of little more than a week. No sooner was peace definitively re-established, than the Russian government came forwards with a liberal contribution for the rebuilding of the public edifices: the Kremlin was restored and enlarged in 1816: the University, reconstructed in a magnificent form, was opened in the following year: the same renovation took place with regard to the churches; and the streets throughout the city were rebuilt at the expence of individuals. Moscow has long occupied a great extent of ground; for, though its population never exceeded 300,000, its circumference, including the sloboden or suburbs, was fully equal to that of London, Southwark, and Westminster together, comprizing a boundary-line of more than 20 miles. The streets were in general wide; and so common was it to have vacant spaces between the buildings, that one street only could be pointed out in which the houses were uniformly continuous. No city exhibited so great a contrast, the meanest cottages being frequently in the immediate neighbourhood of the most splendid mansions: nor did any place in Europe contain so singular a display of Asiatic ornaments, such as paintings on the walls, statues, vases, and columns. In the rebuilding, some approximation has been made to the uniformity and plainness of European towns: less discrepancy exists between the greater and the smaller buildings; and the streets are still wider than before:

yet Moscow remains very inconsistent with our ideas of regularity and comfort, and still exhibits, in many of her buildings, that contrast of luxury and poverty which is so conspicuous in her population. In the treasury of the Kremlin, Dr. M. saw displayed, in barbaric pomp, a magnificent collection of precious stones, costly armour, and ancient regalia : but, on directing his eyes into an adjacent street, he observed it crowded with hundreds of half-clad wretches, shivering with cold, and eagerly devouring their portions of meagre soup cooked in the open air. On ascending the tower of Ivan, which stands in the Kremlin on an eminence, and commands almost the whole of Moscow, he was enabled to take into view first the central part of the city, which had in a great measure escaped the conflagration of 1812; and next the quarter called Semlianogorod, which, at the distance of half a mile from the spot where he stood, extends like a great circle round the central part of the town. This quarter was almost entirely rebuilt. At a greater distance, were the sloboden or suburbs, like a number of scattered villages ; several of which had been consumed in the great fire, and were now rebuilt in an improved form.

Moscow, from the nature of its materials, has been exposed to frequent conflagrations : one of which, in May, 1571, kindled by Tartar invaders, is described (p. 17.) in emphatic terms in a letter written in English on the news of the catastrophe, and inserted literally by Dr. M. The city, however, was re-erected with renewed splendour ; and the fires seem to be of such frequent occurrence that no consequence is attached to them, if they do not involve the destruction of many hundreds of houses. With regard to the events of September, 1812, the Russians (at least the lower orders) are still persuaded that the destruction of their capital was the act of the French ; a notion originating in the declarations of their own government, and apparently confirmed by the delay that took place in the conflagration, which did not become extensive till two days after the entrance of the French van-guard. Count Rostopchin, the governor, had previously removed the regalia, the relics of the Russian patriarchs, and other precious appendages of the crown and the church : but the French, on leaving the city, carried off the celebrated cross of St. Ivan, or John, and conveyed it with the standards taken from the Russians in the campaign, first to Smolensko, and afterward across the Beresina : though, towards the close of their disastrous retreat, the whole was abandoned at the spot on this side of Wilna, at which, as we mentioned in our report of Labaume's work, (January,

1816,) a mountain covered with snow barred their passage, and necessitated the abandonment of even their military chest.

After various remarks on the capital, Dr. M. proceeds to observations of a more comprehensive cast, relative to the Russian empire at large. Notwithstanding the brilliant successes of the late war, and the extensive acquisition of territory, the finances of Russia are far from flourishing; and the depreciation experienced in *our* bank-paper is a mere trifle, compared to that which takes place in a despotic country, where the principles of currency are little understood, and where the public have no reliance on the discretion of ministers. Accounts in Russia are kept in rubles, the intrinsic value of which is about 3s. 4d. each: but a ruble in coin is at present worth four rubles in paper; and the exchange, being regulated by the latter, gives only eleven-pence or a shilling sterling for the paper-ruble. In a different department, we mean the military service, and particularly the hospitals, the author bears testimony to the introduction of great improvements. During the late reigns, and down even to the last wars of Catherine II., the Russians lost many more men by neglect than by the sword: but at present, by the activity of Sir J. Wylie and other foreign medical men, their military hospitals are fully equal to those of France or England. Yet the introduction of knowledge into Russia, by means of foreigners, cannot be more than partially beneficial, as long as the mass of the nation are immersed in servitude and barbarism: nor will the country be effectually civilized, till a middle class of citizens shall be formed among the natives, as it already exists among the improved nations of Europe.

Having made a short stay in the antient metropolis of Russia, Dr. M. proceeded towards Turkey; taking, not as Dr. Clarke did, a route almost directly southward to the Crimea, but a south-west course, by Kiow (properly Kiev), Jassy, Bucharest, and Adrianople. The inconveniences of bad roads were experienced by him in all their extent; the frost not having been sufficiently intense to convert the surface into an uniformly solid substance; and the consequence being that wheels were necessarily carried along with the travelling sledge, to be put on when driving through those formidable tracts of mud that occur so often in Russia and in Poland. The principal transport of merchandise in the interior of Russia takes place in the depth of winter, the season of the author's peregrination: but travelling even over the ice is fatiguing; the roads being very uneven, and the snow at one time accumulated in drifts, and at other times being very bare. In this long journey to the southward, Dr. M. ob-

tained,

tained, like Dr. Clarke, an opportunity of remarking the superiority of the Malo-Russians to the wretched peasantry of the interior of the empire; and at the same time of lamenting the miserable abuse of spirituous liquors, that prevails in almost all the provinces recently acquired by the Russians from Poland. In the south-west corner of European Russia, particularly from Olwiopol to Odessa, are a number of German settlers, who had emigrated chiefly from the Austrian states: their occupations are agricultural; and each family received, on settling, a loan from the Russian government, equivalent to fully 100l. sterling, but for the repayment of which the whole community is responsible. Since 1816, however, the emigration from Germany has not been considerable.

The travellers now drew near to the Turkish frontier, and soon afterward passed the Pruth, so celebrated in the reign of Peter the Great. This river has constituted, since the peace of 1812, a part of the boundary between Russia and Turkey: but the influence of the former power is distinctly felt in the provinces of Moldavia and Walachia; which, though still subject to the Porte, are inhabited by Christians of the Greek church, and have, from the identity of their creed, a bond of connection with the court of St. Petersburg. The Hospodars, or governors of these provinces, are always of a Greek family: but they were liable to be removed (which was almost synonymous with being beheaded) on various grounds, ostensibly for having lost the confidence of the Sultan, but often from no other reason than the prevalence of an adverse intrigue at court. Russia, however, stipulated by the treaty of 1812 that each hospodar should be continued in office during seven years.

Dr. M. pursued his route with rapidity to the southward, and found, on arriving at Adrianople, (near lat. 42°,) that almost all traces of winter had disappeared as early as the beginning of February. Some days afterward, the approach to the vicinity of Constantinople gladdened his eyes and those of his fellow-traveller with the magnificent scenery on the Asiatic side of the Propontis. He resided during two months in the antient metropolis of the Greek empire, but does not attempt to supply any new details on a topic so often discussed: he renders, however, ample justice to the grandeur of the situation when seen from a commanding eminence like the tower of the suburb of Galata; and we are told that, viewed from such a spot, the city, the minarets of its innumerable mosques, the sea of Marmora, and the lofty mountains on the Asiatic side, 'form a picture of such splendid

magnificence as almost to baffle the powers of description.' Being now on the eve of returning to England, the writer brings his narrative to a close; and we take leave of him with a mixed sensation: unable to pass much commendation either on his style or on the arrangement of his matter, but gratified with the recency of a part of his information, and approving his omission of topics that had been fully treated by his predecessors.

Entering now on the second part of our article, we have to render an account of the fourth and last chapter of the volume, which is the composition of Mr. Legh; who, having accompanied Dr. M. during the journey through Russia and Turkey in Europe, parted from him at Constantinople and proceeded by sea to Palestine. A passage of a fortnight, in a Greek vessel, brought him, April 2. 1818, to Jaffa; whence riding across the country to Jerusalem, he had the pleasure of joining several of his travelling countrymen; viz. Mr. Banks and Captains Irby and Mangles, both of the navy. With these gentlemen he made a short excursion to the eastward, in company with the Christian pilgrims (amounting to 6000) who, after Easter, repair from Jerusalem to the Jordan. On the first night, this numerous procession encamped on the site of Jericho; and, departing on the next morning as early as two o'clock, they reached by sun-rise the sacred stream, which they found rapid in its course, but not much wider than the Thames below Oxford. Our travellers now left the pilgrims, and, proceeding to the north-west shore of the Dead Sea, or lake Asphaltites, ventured to bathe in its bitter stream. They found that the taste of these waters was intolerably saline; and that any part of the skin which was previously injured smarted excessively after the immersion: as also that, though there is no truth in the report that iron floats on the surface, the buoyancy felt by a person bathing is much greater here than in ordinary water. Returning to Jerusalem, Mr. L. and his fellow-travellers took steps to carry into effect a plan for which they were extremely anxious; viz. to penetrate in a south-east direction into the country beyond the Dead Sea to Wadi-Moosa, (Valley of Moses,) the supposed site of Petra, a city of importance in the time of the Roman empire: but no solicitation could prevail on the Turkish authorities, at Damascus, Jaffa, or Jerusalem, to grant a *firman* for this remote excursion, because they could not insure the safety of the travellers. The Arabs in possession of that part of the country were declared to be proverbially savage, 'accustomed (p. 202.) to conceal themselves in the cliffs of rocks, and to hurl down stones or weapons

weapons on the rash stranger who ventured near their strong holds.' Still the travellers determined to proceed, fortified with such documents or pretended documents as they could procure at Jerusalem, and trusting to the power of gold to procure them protection from one tribe of Arabs to another. They formed, with their servants and interpreters, a party of eight, equipped in the Arab dress, armed with pistols, and carrying their money, consisting of small gold coins, in leathern belts about their waists. They left Jerusalem in the evening of May 6., slept that night in the convent at Bethlehem, and, passing early in the next morning the pools of Solomon, came into a country better cultivated and of more inviting aspect than the vicinity of Jerusalem: the sides of the hills which they passed being covered with fir and oak. In the evening, they reached the town of Hebron, about 30 miles south of Jerusalem, and visited the outside of the mosque built over the tomb of Abraham. Having obtained guides to conduct them, not to the dangerous ground of Wadi-Moosa, but to Karrac Moab, a town, or rather fort, on the eastern side of the Dead Sea, they proceeded on their journey, and crossed the valley at the southern extremity of that extensive lake. On the 12th, they arrived at the fort of Karrac, and bargained with the Sheikh to escort them to Wadi-Moosa for the moderate sum of 400 piastres, or 15*l.* sterling: they departed on the 17th: but, after having travelled during that and the next day, their guide confessed his inability to afford them security, without the additional protection of another Sheikh whose camp they were about to pass. This necessitated a farther payment, after which the journey was continued in a southerly direction on the 19th, 20th, 21st, and 22d. They now reached the camp of a third chieftain, called Ebn-Raschid, whose territory was not remote from Wadi-Moosa; and intelligence of their approach and of their wish to visit the valley was conveyed to the governor of the latter: but, far from giving them encouragement, this angry leader swore "by the Creator that no *Caffres* (infidels) should come into his country." Such a declaration called forth all the anger of Ebn-Raschid, the rival chieftain; who, grasping his spear, desired the travellers to follow him; and, collecting fifty Arabs, swore in the presence of his troop, "by the honour of their women and the beard of the Prophet, that the travellers should drink of the waters of Wadi-Moosa."

On the next day, they proceeded farther to the south, and had at last a prospect of the romantic spot which was the object of their arduous peregrination. The cliffs of Petra bore a rugged and fantastic aspect, and were evidently not far distant

distant from Mount Hor: in the remote horizon, and at a distance of about 80 miles, they discerned a conical mountain, which they understood to be Mount Sinai; while the nearest point of the Red Sea was not above 40 miles off. These interesting objects doubled their anxiety to proceed: but a messenger, arriving at noon, reported that the hostile Arabs were posted so as to guard the stream on both sides of the valley of Wadi-Moosa. The travellers were now in the land of Edom; and they were reminded, on this as on many other occasions, that the Scriptures, without reference to their sacred authority in other respects, are, beyond all comparison, the most instructive guide that can be found for the wanderer in the east. It was when near to this spot that Moses sent a messenger to the king of Edom, and charged him to say, "Let us pass, I pray thee, through thy country: we will not turn to the right nor to the left until we have passed thy borders." And Edom said unto him, "Thou shalt not pass by me lest I come out against thee with the sword." * To a second, and very modest application from our travellers, the obdurate governor of Wadi-Moosa returned another decided refusal, "You shall neither pass through our land nor drink of our waters." Ebn-Raschid was now roused to double anger, and vowed "by God and the Prophet that they should not return before they had seen the Hasna of the temple of Pharaoh in Wadi-Moosa." A farther re-inforcement, to the number of 400 men, was then ordered up by Ebn-Raschid, arrived, and passed the night beside the travellers: this formidable array proved effectual; and on the 26th the hostile chieftain at last yielded, and consented to admit the visit of the party. They entered the valley, or rather pass, of Wadi-Moosa with a strong guard, and found the scenery extremely abrupt and romantic. They observed various remains of antiquity, such as colossal figures of animals cut in stone, and water-courses or earthen pipes on both sides of the defile. At one place, an arch, belonging probably to an aqueduct, was seen connecting the opposite precipices; and, after a ride of nearly two miles along the pass, the elevation of a beautiful temple burst into view. This striking relic is in admirable preservation, being protected by the massive projections of the cliffs above; and here, on an almost inaccessible pinnacle, is a vase, called by the Arabs the *Hasna*, or Treasury of Pharaoh. A minute description of this and the other remains of Petra may, we understand, (p. 229.) be expected from the pen of Mr. Bankes. Mr. Legh, seeing

* Numbers, chap. xx.

Mount Hor in the south-west, rode thither, and ascended to the summit; near to which is a small white building crowned by a cupola, and containing the tomb of Aaron. From this point he had a clear prospect of Mount Sinai. The next day (27th May) was passed by him and his companions in a farther exploration of the ruins of Petra, and led to the discovery of other ravines and more excavations.

On the 28th the travellers gave a liberal remuneration to the intrepid Ebn-Raschid; and set out on their return by a different road. They reached Karrac Moab on the 2d of June, and passed a few days in a renewed examination of the shores of the Dead Sea; the length of which they considered as not exceeding 40 miles, though commonly computed to be 70 or 80. From the mountains on its western shore, they surveyed nearly the whole expanse of its waters, including Jericho and Jerusalem in the remote perspective. Leaving Karrac Moab on the 8th, and journeying northwards, they first passed Rubbah, antiently Rabbath Moab, the capital of the Moabites; they next crossed the river Arnon, left the country of the Moabites, and entered that of the Amorites. The weather was intensely hot. Their course was along the remains of a Roman road: they passed Dibân, the Dibon of Scripture, and rode along the base of Mount Nebo, from the summit of which Moses had a prospect of the promised land. At some distance is a ruin, supposed to be Herodium; and near the road, beside a rocky knoll, are above fifty sepulchral monuments, of the rudest construction and highest antiquity. Each of them consists of four unhewn stones, covered by one large block, and probably contains ornaments or weapons of the antient Amorites. Mr. L. and his companions stopped at Hesbon, the remains of which are insignificant; and, leaving it on the 13th, they made a detour of nearly 30 miles to the east, where they saw the ruins of Rabbath Ammon, a city originally the capital of the Ammonites, and known, in its more modern form, by the denomination of Philadelpiâ; a name derived, probably, from one of the kings of Egypt. Resuming their north-west course, they crossed on the 18th the river, or rather torrent, Zerka, (the Jabbok of Scripture,) which is the northern boundary of the territory of the Amorites, and arrived at the magnificent ruins of Jerrash, about 30 miles south-east of the lake of Galilee. These ruins, says Mr. L., which possess a beauty and a magnificence that greatly exceed those of Palmyra, consist of two superb amphitheatres of marble, of three temples, and the ruins of several palaces, all of the most beautiful architecture, conjectured to be of the age of the Emperor Aurelius Antoninus.

From

From Jerrasch, the travellers continued to hold a north-west course, crossing the Jordan at the ford of Bisan (Bethsan), passing Tiberias near the lake of Galilee, and riding across the country to Acre, on the coast, about 60 miles from Galilee. In the streets of Acre are still to be seen individuals without eyes or ears, living monuments of the cruelty of their late ruler, the well-known Djezzar. Mr. L. separated here from his fellow-travellers, and, exchanging the Arab for a Turkish dress, took the road to the north along the coast; passing first Sur, a miserable hamlet occupying the site of Tyre, and afterward Seyda, the antient Sidon. Near, but more towards the interior, is the country of the Druses, a tribe governed by an Emeer, and commonly reputed to be descended from some dispersed parties of Crusaders who sought refuge in the mountains of Syria.—The next object of curiosity, but at a considerable distance to the north, consisted of the ruins of Balbec, or Heliopolis; a city of which the foundation is unknown, but has been ascribed to Solomon, to Augustus, to Adrian, and, with more probability, to Antoninus Pius. It stood immediately under the chain of Anti-Libanus, near the extremity of a rich and beautiful valley; and the most remarkable relic is a temple of marble, in great preservation. Mr. L. next took a southerly course to Damascus, distant about 50 miles; and he declares that the view of that city is so beautiful as to justify all the pictures of oriental imagery. The traveller, arriving from the north-west, sees on his left a desert-tract; in front, and at a distance, lofty mountains; but below him, in the valley, mosques and turrets rising amid innumerable gardens, which are filled with palme, pomegranates, and vines, and watered by various branches of a copious and rapid stream. ‘Here the Turks repose under cool and refreshing shades, on the margin of marble fountains.’ The city, however, is not in accordance with its scenery; being long and narrow, and the mud-bricks, of which the houses are built, having a mean appearance: but in the interior the dwellings have considerable magnificence, the floors of the rooms being in general of marble, the windows of stained glass, and the walls beautifully painted in *fresco*.

After a week's stay at Damascus, Mr. Legh was enabled to make arrangements for traversing the desert that intervenes between that city and the ruins of Palmyra. It was agreed that, on paying about 20l. sterling, he should be furnished with two guides and two dromedaries to convey him and his interpreter to Palmyra, and back to Homs, a town on the road to the north of Syria. Setting out in the evening, the party

party travelled all the night, and reached on the next evening a camp of Arabs, to the chief of whom Mr. L. carried an introduction, and who supplied him with fresh horses. The succeeding night brought them to Karietein, a village remarkable for a fine spring, where travellers usually fill a number of skins with water before they cross the desert of 100 miles that lies between it and Palmyra. In this dreary road, Mr. Legh saw a striking example of the phænomenon of the *mirage*, from which the remote desert derives all the appearance of a sea. The journey was performed with the same horses, and with two intervals of stoppage, in twenty-four hours; and at sun-rise the white marbles of Palmyra stood before him, when he hastened to drink of the stream that flows on the south-west of the town.

Palmyra is distant about 250 miles from Damascus, in a north-east direction: its ruins are about three miles in circuit, and seem all to be remains of public buildings. The celebrated colonnade is formed partly of granite, but more of white marble columns, and extends nearly three-fourths of a mile. The origin of Palmyra is uncertain, but it was a city of importance in the time of Cæsar. Its foundation and extension were probably owing to the rich soil and the pleasant streams of its neighbourhood, in the midst of a vast desert; advantages which rendered it an important station for the commercial intercourse between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates. It became a Roman colony in the time of Caracalla, and acquired additional importance as a frontier fortress against the Persians, reaching the zenith of its historical renown in the reign of the unfortunate Zenobia. The ruins continue in a state of surprizing preservation, owing partly to the dryness of the climate, but more to the circumstance of there being no other city in the neighbourhood to which the materials can be appropriated. The present village, or rather hamlet, of Arabs, is contained in the great court of the temple of the Sun.

From Palmyra, Mr. L. returned to the north of Syria, and, passing Aleppo and Antioch, travelled with great expedition across the romantic scenery of Mount Taurus to Constantinople. There he concludes a narrative which no reader will have considered as too long, since it is replete with interesting particulars, related in a style of great simplicity, and devoid of that unfortunate amplification and prolixity which are so common among travellers.—What a contrast does such a plain and perspicuous relation form with the turgid and not unfrequently contradictory effusions of Dr. Clarke!

Several good engravings decorate this volume.

ART.

ART. II. *Letters from the North of Italy*, addressed to Henry Hallam, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 339. and 229. 18s. Boards. Murray. 1819.

WE learn from the initials with which the introduction to these letters is subscribed, and also from general report, that they are the production of Mr. William Stewart Rose, the second son of the late Right Honourable George Rose, whose public career is well known to our readers, and who repeatedly appeared before our literary tribunal in the capacity of a writer on topics connected with politics and administration. The son has likewise offered himself more than once to the notice of the world in the character of an author: but it would be no easy matter to find, in the whole compass of literature, topics of greater discordance than those which have respectively occupied his and his father's attention. Mr. W. S. Rose is a labourer in the vineyard of romance, and a versifier of tales of chivalry. So long as fifteen years ago, he called for our attention (*M. R.* vol. xlv.) as the translator of *Amadis de Gaul*; and subsequently (vol. lix.) as exhibiting in an English garb the less known romance of *Partenopex de Blois*. The impression of volatility, suggested by these fanciful labours, will by no means be removed by the present work; which is addressed much more to the imagination than to the judgment of the reader, although an opposite inference might at first be drawn from the gravity of the different titles. The epistolary form was adopted, not with the view of imposing the book on the public as a real correspondence, but as the mode of composition most suitable to the habits of the writer; who candidly admits that he is little accustomed to serious composition, and was desirous of finding an excuse for writing as he should speak. He farther adds that the letters remain 'such as they were originally struck off;' a declaration to which we have no hesitation in prescribing, the book being totally deficient in arrangement; and it being a task of no little labour to us to give a connected view of the different topics of which it treats. The principal are

Local Descriptions of the North of Italy, particularly Venice, Vicenza, Bassano, and the District of the Sette Comuni.

Mode of Government, comparing the late Administration of the French with that of their Successors. Statistical Remarks on Agriculture, Taxes, and Tithes.

National Character, as exemplified in Society, political Feeling, and mercantile Transactions.

Language and Literature, particularly Poetry.

These

These are titles of no slight promise: but the feeling of the reader, when he turns from the table of contents to the body of the book, may be compared to that of the traveller who, after having viewed such a city as Constantinople or Damascus from a commanding eminence, has the mortification of descending into a succession of narrow and ill built streets. Mr. Rose would have done well to forbear the graver part of these inquiries; since, though with an evident disposition to liberality, he has not perseverance enough to follow up a serious disquisition, or to collect the facts necessary to the formation of a sound and deliberate conclusion. His delight is to indulge in a string of anecdotes and effusions, which are not unfrequently introduced in the wrong place, and at other times (vol. i. p. 98. and ii. p. 122.) are too trifling to be admitted into a printed work. He seems to have a due impression of the inefficiency of the Papal government, and refers (vol. ii. p. 225.) to circumstances connected with absurd taxation, delays of justice, and insecurity of property, which have been but too fully confirmed by late occurrences in that badly administered country: but his mode of reasoning is extremely defective; assertions being made without a reference to the necessary authorities; and allusions to existing regulations (such as the *Annona* laws) being introduced without that previous explanation which is necessary to at least three-fourths of his readers. Similar remarks apply to almost every part of the book; and the reader is relieved only when the topics under discussion, being local or personal, are too simple to be perplexed by the confused discussion of the writer.

Mr. Rose travelled from England to Italy by way of Paris; and his English carriage having nearly gone to pieces when he reached that capital, he adopted a plan not unusual on the Continent, of proceeding by the *voiturier*; that is, paying a stated sum to the master of the vehicle, in return not merely for conveyance, but for one meal daily (a dinner) by the road. To a traveller with command of time, this is, in his opinion, a very eligible plan; the dinners being generally at *tables d'hôte*, which exhibit a good view of the local manners, and the inn-keepers being anxious to give satisfaction to the *voiturier*: who, on his part, is interested in obtaining a testimonial of good conduct from his employers, and perfectly aware that the present commonly made to him at the end of the journey will depend on the satisfaction which he has afforded. As to the time required, the journey from Paris to Padua, a distance of about 650 miles, is performed in three weeks. — Mr. Rose repaired to a southern
clime

clime in quest not of pleasure but of health; labouring, as we judge from his account, (p. 16.) under a paralytic affection, for which he had been advised to take the baths or rather the mud of Abano, a village near Padua. This place stands in a plain about three miles from the Euganean hills; a range of no great height, which extends southwards from the Alps along a part of the Venetian territory. From an eminence adjacent to the village of Abano, several copious streams arise, which at their source are sufficiently hot to boil an egg: a part of these heated waters serves to turn the wheel of a mill 'which whirls amidst volumes of smoke;' while some is employed to fill the baths and the pits used for heating the mud that is applied to the body of paralytic patients. This mud is impregnated by the water not merely with heat but with salt, sulphur, and other mineral powers; after being thoroughly heated in the pits, it is taken out, kneaded, and stirred; and it is then spread on the body in a way that greatly resembles the taking of a plaster-cast. It will retain its heat, without much sensible diminution, for three quarters of an hour, and produces a slight redness on the part to which it is applied, with a profuse perspiration over the whole body. The season for these singular operations is the middle of summer; and the place is usually deserted by the end of August, though some patients, says Mr. Rose, continue to 'wallow on through the whole of September.' — Abano is wholly deficient in the attractions of an English watering-place, having no theatre, no circulating library, and scarcely even a news-paper.

'The pleasures of the place are more calculated for an Italian than an Englishman. These ordinarily consist in coffee-house prose, or listening to some *improvisatore*, in dancing (that is those who can) to the squeak and squall of a fiddle, tormented by some itinerant blind professor, in billiards by day, or in faro by night. But that which best ensures amusement is the fund of good humour and gaiety which the invalids here bring with them, and which each throws cheerfully into the common stock. Both sexes, when they have finished their mud-matins and their masses, may be seen lounging in knots, if the heat will admit, under an avenue, which forms the charm of a melancholy garden; and here you have no lamentations from them over personal or local miseries, nor do you ever detect their ill-humour escaping by some secret vent. They fall naturally into society with each other, and no one ever seems to fear, as with us, another's springing an acquaintance upon him, which may blow him up in the eyes of his more fastidious or fashionable friends. All is ease, nature, and gaiety.

' This

'This system of sociability is almost universal in Italy. I recollect passing two days in the family of a gentleman who occupied the principal house in a small town in Tuscany, where, to my great astonishment, I perceived, on returning from an evening walk, the ominous preparations of lights and card-tables. Having asked the meaning of this, I was told that it was my host's turn to hold an assembly, solemnized in rotation at the houses of all the *notables* of the place. At this all were present from the *feudatario* to the apothecary.

'In some instances indeed even common shop-keepers are admitted (and were so formerly) to these country *conversazioni*. Yet, on returning to the city, all have the good sense to fall back into their proper ranks.'

Statistics.—The great fault of travellers in Italy is to generalize too much, and to suppose that a feature which they find in one province must necessarily be common to all: taking very little account of the long subsisting divisions of that country, which, like Germany, seems destined to remain an assemblage of separate and independent states. The agriculture of Italy is backward almost throughout, but differs extremely in different provinces: farms are in general small; rents are paid partly in money, partly in produce at a given value; and, in many cases, the tenant is obliged, by the total want of capital, to give the landlord half the produce in return for the loan of cattle and farming utensils. This wretched system is what the French call *metairie*. Mr. R. states that, after a diligent inquiry in the neighbourhood of Padua, he found various districts in which it was general, and others in which it was unknown:

'I mention this because M. Chateaubriand mentions the system as universal in Italy. I should have thought this very ingenious traveller might have discovered that there was no such thing as a system in Italy—no, not even in the same petty state, every province having customs of its own. And in corroboration of what I have stated, I could cite whole districts where the *metairie*-tenure is unknown, though it is undoubtedly the most general and popular in the peninsula. I shall here cite another mistake of the same author, as arising out of the same inattention and love of generalization. He talks of the acre of the north of Italy (if I recollect rightly) being equivalent to the French *arpent*. But there are a dozen acres of various measure in the north of Italy alone; and, to borrow an example from the state in which I am resident, there is nearly the difference of a quarter between those of Padua and Verona.'

Similar discrepancies are found to exist with regard to tithes; the *ratio* of contribution being in some places a 10th, a 12th, 15th, or 20th, while in others it is scarcely a 40th of the

the produce. This strange inequality is probably owing to the increase of the tithe not keeping pace with the increase of the produce: it is in hilly and unproductive districts that tithe is highest; and the low grounds have the advantage of paying on one crop only in the year, although two are frequently raised. The clergy are remarkably moderate in collecting their dues: a Venetian judge having assured Mr. Rose that he did not recollect a single suit being brought on this account by an ecclesiastic against a farmer; and, in fact, the Italian clergy, though abundantly zealous in the cause of their order, are seldom open to accusation for avidity as individuals. 'Were I,' adds Mr. R., 'to speak of them from what I have seen, I should report most favourably of the country-clergy, who lead a quiet life, and never mix indecently in the pleasures or bustle of the world.' He cannot bear an equally favourable testimony to the merchants, at least the smaller merchants in the Italian towns; who, in general, seem to have little scruple in laying travellers under contribution.

The system of taxation in Austrian Italy continues nearly the same as in the time of the French; the principal burden being a tax of 25 per cent. on the produce of land, called here *la prediale*, and similar to the *foncier* in France. Various other imposts exist, which are less productive and more exceptionable, such as duties on the transit of goods; and even petty dues on the provisions brought into towns. The administration of justice is, in Mr. R.'s opinion, by no means free from exception; one judge in each tribunal being charged with the examination of a particular case, and not fortified, by the amount of his salary at least, against temptation:—but, supposing even that the personal integrity of the judges is here, as in France, generally above suspicion, a serious objection remains to be urged against the practice of acting on written depositions: the ingenuity of an Italian enabling him to make a plausible statement on paper, while that tendency to haste, (or, to speak more properly, to passion,) which is so prevalent in their tempers, would scarcely fail to lead to an exposition of the truth on cross examination.

If the horrid crime of assassination be not altogether extinguished, it is now extremely rare in Italy. Leopold, who was grand duke of Tuscany before the French revolution, had done much towards this and other reforms by an impartial execution of the laws: the French came next, and were more rigorous: but still the crime of murder is sometimes perpetrated in the case of a highway robbery.

In

In treating of the Mal-aria, or unhealthy temperature which afflicts so large a portion of the west coast of Italy, Mr. R., amid much diffuse observation, offers some suggestions not unworthy of attention: first, that the occasional sojourning of labourers from the high grounds should be discouraged, these persons being of all others the most likely to suffer by the fever: next, that the number of permanent settlers should be increased, and their dwellings enlarged, so that no one should be obliged to sleep on the ground-floor: lastly, that the want of good water should be remedied by collecting the rain on the roof, and in tanks, as at Malta, Cadiz, and in some parts of Holland.

Literature.—Italy, so often extolled as the parent of science, labours at present under a general want of education for the lower orders, and an almost general indifference to literature on the part of their superiors. A bookseller's shop in an Italian town is a place not for reading or even inspecting new books, but for conversation; and in private houses it is extremely rare to be received in a library, or to find books in any of the more accessible rooms, since they are in general stowed away in the garret. The larger cities are not deficient in public libraries, but most of them, without excepting even the Vatican, are imperfectly arranged and badly managed. The MSS. in these venerable collections treat chiefly of theology or civil law: but Mr. R. found a most gratifying exception in the library of Ferrara, where he had the good fortune to see the MS. of the *Orlando Furioso*; and the inspection of this valuable relic gave rise to some good remarks on the necessity of the *linæ labor* on the part of an individual, who, of all others, would appear to have been most independent of it.

‘ This is worth remarking; for if on the one hand, it is a mistake to suppose that those thoughts only tell, which the poet catches flying, it is an error to imagine that he always corrects his crude ideas when passing them in review. It may be remarked, indeed, that he often alters them for the worse, perhaps from having lost sight of the association which influenced him in their first selection. But these observations do not certainly apply to Ariosto, who appears to have been as full of his subject when he corrected as when he wrote, and never to have altered, but for the better, though he continued his corrections as long as he lived.

‘ I have said that few poets appear to have written more under the influence of immediate inspiration than Ariosto: it may be added that no Italian poet ever obtained a wider command of the language, for whilst we find him dealing in its most familiar phraseology, we shall observe him grafting on it a thousand

Latinisms, and Lombardisms not yet naturalized, which he has, some how or other, assimilated with the parent stock. Yet, he who reviews these MSS. may convince himself that Ariosto, when he began his *Orlando*, (in which few things are more striking than the skill with which he wields the language,) was as yet unpractised in its delicacies and proprieties.'

The topographical notices of Mr. Rose, though most ample with regard to Venice, embrace likewise other towns of the north of Italy; particularly Genoa, Mantua, Verona, and Padua. In comparing the past and the present state of that country, he seems, on the whole, to think that it is worse governed than it was when under the French. Reasonings on politics and statistics, however, appear not to be within his sphere: the merits of his book resting on his acquaintance with works of poetry and romance, and on his familiarity with the customs of the Italians and other inhabitants of the shores of the Mediterranean, — the result, doubtless, of long continued residence among them. The talent of humour is also to a certain degree possessed by this writer, and the reader will find amusement in various passages (vol. i. p. 36. 57.; vol. ii. p. 166.): but we cannot help adding that many of the remarks and anecdotes, however tolerable in conversation, are of too humble a cast for a printed work, even in the familiar form of letters.

ART. III. *Ethical Questions*; or, Speculations on the Principal Subjects of Controversy in Moral Philosophy. By T. Cogan, M. D. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1817,

WE ought perhaps to apologize to our readers for not having sooner introduced this valuable work to their attention: but the delay, as they will easily infer from a reference to the notices in our former volumes of the successive parts of Dr. Cogan's extensive Treatise on the Passions *, has arisen from no disposition to undervalue either the author or his performance; and we are the less inclined to regret the circumstance, as we have now an opportunity of discharging a pleasing though melancholy duty in bearing our testimony to the merits of an excellent and amiable philosopher, whose character is reflected from his works, and who in the course of a long and active life has in various ways deserved well of his fellow-creatures. The valuable institution for restoring persons apparently dead by drowning, called the *Humane Society*,

* See M. R. vol. xxxiv. N. S. pp. 81. and 270.; vol. lv. p. 405. vol. lxi. p. 416., and vol. lxxii. p. 257.

saw in him one of its original founders and most zealous promoters; and to any scheme which was calculated to aid the cause of humanity, liberty, or what he conceived to be important truth, his hearty assistance was never wanting. In his writings, the same pure, benevolent, and Christian spirit every where prevails. We discern in them a mind thoroughly imbued with the principles of the soundest philosophy, tempered and refined by rational views of religious truth, and animated by the pure and lively flame of devotion. Though not backward in his efforts when the case required him to enter on the discussion of speculative questions, he seems in general to have delighted more in applying his principles to practice; and anxiously to have availed himself of every occasion to deduce conclusions from them which were likely to benefit the cause of religion and morals, or impress them on the hearts of his readers. After a protracted career of virtue and usefulness, he has been "gathered to his fathers:" but he will yet live in the memory of those who are delighted to trace the philosophic spirit, or who are edified and improved by the pure morality and piety, which uniformly characterize his writings.

We have already observed that Dr. Cogan took the greatest pleasure in such views of the philosophy of mind, as were more immediately applicable to the moral and religious improvement of his readers. Accordingly, in his former treatises on the Passions, we find comparatively few references to inquiries merely speculative; — so few indeed, and introduced with such scrupulous impartiality, as not unfrequently to leave his readers in doubt with regard to his real sentiments, and perhaps sometimes to expose him to the allegation of indecision and wavering in his theoretical principles. In fact, their leading object, as he remarks in the preface to the present work, was principally to collect and arrange the important truths, philosophical and moral, that are generally received on the subjects to which they relate, in some regular order, and to give them a practical direction.

In the volume before us, which may be considered in some measure as a supplement to the author's former publications, he enters more fully into the discussion of various controverted topics which he had before avoided, and assumes a more vigorous tone. For this reason, however acceptable it may thus be rendered to those who already adopt his opinions, it may be doubted whether the work will be equally well received by all parties; since a writer who decidedly espouses one side of a disputed question, whatever candour, ability, or acuteness he may display in the discussion of it, will in ge-

neral meet with little favour, except from those who have *previously* ranged themselves under the same banners. With the great majority of mankind, those opinions are orthodox which agree with their own; and those writers are able, candid, and impartial, who are of *their* party, or who support those tenets which, for any reason, or for no reason, they have been accustomed to receive as indisputable.

The first speculation turns on the questions, What are the sources of rational conviction; and what are the characteristic differences of each? It contains a concise, but in the main a satisfactory view of the several kinds of evidence, which Dr. Cogan reduces to the following arrangement:—‘1. Truths are known through the medium of our senses; 2. By quick perceptions, without conscious reasoning; 3. By observation and experience; 4. By human testimony; 5. Through the medium of memory by which they are recalled; 6. By reasoning or logical deductions; 7. By mathematical evidence.’ This enumeration may be complete, but we think that some objection may be reasonably urged against its logical accuracy;—in particular, the first and second classes appear to us very nearly to coincide; and it may be doubted whether any precise line of distinction can be drawn between those quick perceptions which are here supposed to arise without conscious reasoning, and the more formal or logical deductions which constitute the sixth class. The province assigned to the evidence of sense seems to us rather too much enlarged. Our senses cannot properly be said to inform us that external objects exist; they only communicate those impressions from which the existence of external objects is inferred; and it is to this more confined province alone that Dr. Cogan’s argument, against those who distrust, or are supposed to distrust, the evidence of their senses, is in any way applicable. ‘This strange hypothesis,’ he says, ‘confutes itself. It is supported by an argument which destroys the objection. How can the objector know that our senses deceive us at any time? It can *alone* be by the accurate discoveries of these very senses. Thus is he compelled to place his confidence in a testimony which he professedly rejects.’ May it not, however, be reasonably doubted whether any such ‘strange’ hypothesis as this exists, or ever was actually maintained? To deny the reality of our sensations is equivalent to denying the evidence of consciousness; which not even Descartes imagined to be possible, since he made the unquestionable reality of it the foundation of his celebrated argument for his own existence. “*Cogito, ergo sum.*” Yet, though none ever doubted the reality of their sensations, many have called in question the reality of the
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the causes to which those sensations are usually ascribed; and that there may in many cases be very rational grounds of hesitation on this latter point, we need not stay to prove.

With respect to the evidence of testimony, Dr C. makes these judicious observations :

‘ In physical phenomena, those events which seem to *oppose* the laws of nature, where it is presumed that these laws have been investigated, demand a stronger evidence than the events which are more consonant with them. For example, the projection of stones by a volcanic eruption to an *unusual* height or distance, and of a magnitude before *unknown*, will be more readily credited than the narrative of *showers of stones* having fallen in different parts of the world. In the one case we have simply to admit an extraordinary exertion of a power *known to exist*, concerning which no accurate measurement could have been taken respecting size or extent. The latter cannot be explained by any laws of nature already admitted. In this case, we are not easily satisfied with the declarations made even by respectable persons. We still suspect there may be a delusion somewhere. Reiterated evidences respecting each extraordinary phenomena, the strong assurances that they have taken place in various parts of the globe and at different times confirmed by all the force of respectable witnesses, begin at length to make a deep impression, not only upon the public mind in general, but also upon the cautious philosopher. It is argued that so large a number of persons resident in places remote from each other, and living at distant periods, cannot conspire together to deceive the world, can have no interest in the deception, and that they are as competent to see these phenomena as any other objects around them. It is now imagined that the laws of nature are not known to the extent which had been supposed.

‘ Nothing establishes human testimony in a manner more satisfactory than other events which succeed to those which have been candidates for our belief, and which could not have taken place without their prior existence. Events and transactions thus circumstanced corroborate each other, and they form a continuity of evidence that is irresistible. We ourselves are in numerous cases witnesses to a concurrence which could not have existed without antecedent causes. The pyramids of Egypt, which still exist, manifest the antiquity and population of the country, and the riches of its sovereigns. The mummies which are in our cabinets confirm the reports of historians concerning the ancient manner of embalming the dead. The tessellated pavements, Roman causeways, fortified stations, &c. observable in many parts of Great Britain, confirm the historical reports that the Romans had invaded these kingdoms and obtained extensive conquests. The existence of ancient Greece, its renown for the cultivation of the arts of painting, architecture, and statuary, and the pre-eminence of the Greeks in intellectual endowments, are evinced by innumerable evidences before our eyes.’ (P. 21.)

Memory is another of the sources of evidence enumerated by Dr. Cogan. The recurrences of ideas and feelings, which constitute memory, may all take place in conformity with the general law of association; and yet there seems to be one leading characteristic of this faculty, namely, the *recognition* of these impressions as corresponding to something which has formerly been experienced, and which it seems difficult to explain merely by a reference to this principle. Nevertheless, we have a strong conviction of the reality of those things which we distinctly remember. It does not, however, follow, as Dr. Reid seems to suppose, that the reliance which we place on the evidence of memory is an ultimate fact in our constitution of which we can give no other account but that we are so made. "Whatever we distinctly remember," says he, "we believe, and without asking for any other reason for it, nor will any man in his wits hear any argument against it." We once heard a young lady declare that she remembered most distinctly a certain event, which was proved, by a reference to dates and registers, to have happened two years before she was born! Must she be supposed to have been "out of her wits," because she allowed that her memory had in this instance deceived her?

In treating of mathematical or demonstrative evidence, the present author seems to expect, with Mr. Locke, that, by continued diligence in the pursuit of knowledge, in overcoming prejudices, and in correcting the ambiguities of language, we may at length be enabled to obtain the same facility and certainty in the solution of moral problems. He does not advert, however, to the characteristic property of the objects of mathematical investigation, that they all admit of *measurement*. Now we cannot affirm of one action, or disposition, that it is twice as wise or virtuous as another; and this is a deficiency which, there is good reason to believe, cannot be supplied in the present state of the human faculties. Perhaps, however, we may not be intitled to affirm that this distinction between those objects and qualities which are, and those which are not, susceptible of mensuration, arises necessarily out of the nature of the things themselves; it may rather be owing to the limited range of the human understanding. Superior orders of intelligent beings are probably able to contemplate the relations and mutual dependencies of things, with their necessary consequences, to a greater extent than that in which they are as yet unfolded to our view; and at least we cannot doubt that the Great Geometrician, who apportions every thing by number, weight, and measure, sees all things in one clear and certain view, and exactly adjusts each

each particular to the highest perfection and happiness of the whole.

The next discussion is allotted to disinterested benevolence, which Dr. C. conceives to be a motive to action altogether distinct from any regard to self; though he does not agree with those who contend that it is an original principle in our nature antecedent to education and experience, but on the contrary endeavours to shew that the most exalted of the benevolent affections may be traced to self-love as their origin. This idea nearly coincides with the doctrine maintained by Hartley on this subject; and we are rather surprised that Dr. Cogan, who every where expresses a high opinion of the merits of this distinguished philosopher, has made no explicit reference to his account of the origin and progress of the sympathetic affections. The "Observations on Man" contain, in a small compass, the substance of all that has been or perhaps can be said on the subject; and Dr. C.'s illustrations of them, though elegant and pleasing, would in our opinion have been more satisfactory if he had deduced them more directly from the leading principle of association. The fact unquestionably is that a just theory of the nature of the human mind, and of the gradual progress and succession of the different principles of action as they are generated by the influence of association, proves, in conformity with universal experience, that there are and must be generated in our constitution purely disinterested affections and feelings. We are born, it is certain, in a state wholly destitute of any such feelings; beings purely selfish, sensual, corporeal; knowing nothing beyond ourselves, and nothing in ourselves but mere bodily sensations. It is not for a long time, however, that the infant continues in this state either of intellectual or of moral insensibility. The various sensations, which it experiences, speedily give rise to ideas; the faculties of the understanding are roused into action; memory recalls the traces of past sensations; judgment compares them with those which are actually present; and they are connected and associated together in various combinations, so as quickly to call the mind into existence and exercise. Again, when the attention has been directed to the various impressions made from without, and the mind has learnt to reason concerning the causes of these impressions and the manner in which its various wants are supplied, an idea presently arises of the connection between those supplies, accommodations, and pleasures, and the attendance and care of others. These ideas, continually occurring in close connection, shortly become united together in the mind also, in the way of association;

since nearly all the pleasures which young children receive are conferred on them by their parents, attendants, or companions. Hence it appears that, according to the doctrine of association, a child, even in its earliest infancy, cannot be otherwise than pleased with the sight of its parents or friends; and that advancing years will strengthen these impressions, and confirm the dispositions and associations of which infancy has witnessed the commencement. Still farther; a child will quickly perceive that his own pleasure is in a great degree connected with that of those who are about him. Almost from his birth he converses with his equals; and, if he be one of a numerous family, he has many enjoyments and some sorrows in common with the rest. Here, then, are considerations in abundance to shew that, though originally a mere creature of matter and sense, the human being is placed in circumstances which necessarily give birth in a short time to sympathetic and benevolent affections; — and thus it appears that the interest, which we gradually learn to take in the happiness of those around us, is originally derived from the concern which we necessarily feel for any thing that conduces to our own enjoyment. It may, however, in process of time, completely lose all trace of this origin, and become altogether disinterested in the strictest sense of that term. Indeed, we know that it is the constant and universal tendency of association to produce these transformations. It is needless to multiply instances to shew that, where things have been frequently connected together in the mind by the relation of means and end, those feelings, which were at first excited by the end or result alone, are afterward so far connected with and transferred to the means, which were originally interesting merely as being instrumental to the effect, that the acquisition of these means shall excite pleasure for their own sakes. A remarkable confirmation of this position may be derived from the fact that those persons, whose benevolence has been most active, who have been most frequently prompted to take an interest in the welfare and relief of others, and who must consequently have been so much more frequently led to *transfer* these pleasurable feelings to their immediate objects and sources, have always these affections in a higher state of improvement and cultivation.

Dr. C.'s third speculation relates to the doctrine of a moral sense, supposed by many philosophers to be necessary to enable us to perceive moral distinctions in a manner analogous to the functions of the external senses. The term *Moral Sense* was first introduced, we believe, by Dr. Hutcheson, in conformity with his general notion of what he calls internal
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or *reflex* senses; and which he defines to be "a determination of our nature to be pleased with some objects and displeased with others, independently of the will." Into the origin of these determinations he does not inquire, but, taking the facts as he finds them, for the sake of a name he denominates them *senses*. Yet it has not, we think, been sufficiently observed, either by the opponents or by those who have called themselves the disciples of this eminent philosopher, that he does not refer our moral *judgments* to a sense, but only the pleasure or pain which we experience, — the sentiments of approbation or disapprobation which arise in our minds on contemplating right or wrong actions or dispositions. He represents the general happiness as the object of virtue; and it is this object or end which the moral sense has immediately in view, and to which alone it is directed. "Though we have instincts," says he, "determining us to desire ends without any previous reasoning, yet it is by the use of our reason that we find out the means of obtaining our ends:" — so that all questions, with regard to the moral character of different actions or dispositions, are to be referred not to the moral sense but to the rational and intellectual powers. It is the end itself only, and not the peculiar efficacy of the means for attaining these ends, of which it takes cognizance, and in the contemplation of which it feels pleasure. It appears to us that the unusual and perhaps unguarded way in which this author employs the terms *sense*, *instinct*, &c., has led many to class him with a description of theorists to whom he bears no resemblance except in phraseology.

Later writers, however, under the term *Moral Sense*, have contended for an instinctive principle, enabling us not only to perceive the value of the end, but to judge of the right adaptation of the means; and against this reasoning Dr. C. argues very ably and satisfactorily. In the first place, he observes, it is merely a supposition, founded on remote and imperfect analogies. Secondly, if such a moral sense existed, there could be no dispute about its existence, any more than about the reality of the bodily senses. Again, there is an uniformity in the exercise and affections of the external senses, which is not perceived in the decisions of this supposed moral faculty.

The following observations occur in answer to the argument derived from the vividness and rapidity of the feelings attributed to a moral sense;

The quickness and apparent instantaneousness of these impressions may easily be explained by adverting to principles known to exist, and known to have a very extensive influence;
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which takes away the necessity of devising an hypothesis in order to explain these phenomena. The doctrine of a moral sense, teaches that especial provision is made for the immediate discernment of merit and demerit in human actions, in order to encourage and facilitate the practice of virtue. But numerous facts will manifest that a similar facility of discernment and of correspondent action pervades every department of human agency. We possess that happy principle which rewards our progress in every thing we wish to acquire, and without which we should be perpetually condemned to the slowness of novitiates. Frequent repetitions in every thing introduce HABIT; and habit in its effects is assimilated to instinct. Fortunately, it is common to every thing, we practise without exception. Its incalculable advantages are, equally the property of the unlearned and the learned, of the mere peasant and the accomplished scholar. Habit is as it were instantaneous in its operations; but the introduction of habit is frequently slow and difficult. Facilities are the result of much practice, and may have been acquired by much application and labour; although, after perfection is gained, we may forget the slow stages of gradual improvement, and censure those who are not as expert as ourselves. The most rapid reader and the most fluent speaker commenced by learning the letters of the alphabet, and by tedious attempts to form the organs of speech to the proper utterance of articulate sounds. The most expert musician, whose execution outstrips attention to his notes, commenced by the gamut. Perhaps he was at the commencement discouraged by difficulties which seemed almost insurmountable; but, arrived at perfection in his art, he would feel himself embarrassed by an attention to those very rules by which his accomplishments were obtained. It is by virtue of this principle that all the concerns of life are transacted with so much facility and dispatch. Such facilities are confessedly acquirements, and not the gifts of nature. To the initiated, the effects or impressions are immediate; but, there must be a previous initiation. This sufficiently explains the reason why, in no case, are such quick impressions and facilities of action *universal*. The love of virtue and hatred of vice, distinctions quickly discerned, and strong sensations correspondent to their character, are equally the *acquirements* of virtuous minds.

‘All that can be ascribed to the constitution of human nature in this question is an inherent love of well-being, an immediate attachment to that which is apparently good or productive of happiness, and a hatred of the opposites, as soon as such qualities are ascertained. The sensations of love and hatred, as we have already observed, accompany our opinions when we cannot immediately penetrate into the nature of actions. Our opinions are frequently erroneous; but, when our minds are duly informed, when we have just sentiments of the nature and tendencies of particular actions and dispositions, these virtuous sensations render us prompt in the execution. No time is lost in deliberation; and we enjoy pleasure in the exercise of such virtuous affections, which is both a reward and an encouragement. In these respects also we trace

traces a similarity in secular affairs. Every pursuit in life is professedly a pursuit of some good. Habit introduces a pleasurable facility in the use of the means; habit renders occupations agreeable, while the desired effects are accomplished in the most expeditious manner.' (P. 125.)

It is scarcely necessary to observe that the last paragraph very nearly coincides with the doctrine, to which we have endeavoured to shew that Dr. Hutcheson's notion of a moral sense is really reducible;—a doctrine which has been strangely confounded with the *common* sense of some later writers, to whose system it bears in fact only a very remote analogy.

The author's fourth speculation concerns that "most contentious question in this most contentious of the sciences," the doctrine of necessity. On this subject, we are disposed to agree with Mr. Hume that the contending sects differ much more in appearance than in reality. In fact, the practical rules of conduct laid down by both parties very nearly coincide; and each would reject with horror the conclusions which his opponents represent as the inevitable consequences of his tenets. We apprehend that the necessarian, in maintaining that the will is invariably governed by the strongest motive, (or, as Dr. C. would rather express it, the strongest *inducement*,) has in general rather evaded than answered the repeated demand of his adversary for an independent measure or criterion of the strength of motives. To say that the will is governed by the strongest motive, and, when asked what we mean by the strongest motive, to reply, "it is that which governs the will," seems too much like a *petitio principii*. On the other hand, to suppose, with the asserter of philosophical liberty, that the determination of the will might be different when all the previous circumstances have been the same, clearly involves the absurdity of an effect without a cause. In the judgment of the believer in a Providence unceasingly extended over all the concerns of the creation, to the completion of whose purposes all the events which take place in it are essential, and none more so than those which are connected with the volitions of rational and moral agents, there can be no absurdity more gross and revolting than this.

"It has been objected," says Dr. C., "that this concatenation leads to all the horrors of fatalism. In the mind of an atheist it may; with the consistent theist there is little danger; with the pious Christian it is impossible. If the concatenation be ordained of God, he will preserve every link entire, in its energies and in
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its uses. However numerous the links, or extensive the chain, they are all parts of a whole; constructed by infinite wisdom for purposes infinitely benignant. A section of it alone may appear above our horizon, like the rainbow in the clouds, but it is easy for the imagination to follow it beyond its visible appearance. God knows its *integrity*. He knows the kind and degree of influence which every ordained power is capable of exerting upon the human mind, and he can direct it for good, *when he pleases and as he pleases*. He can make the vices of men subservient to the cause of virtue, and temporary misery productive of the most durable blessings." (P. 167.)

The next article is of a controversial nature, and recalls our attention to the dispute which made so much noise nearly fifty years ago, but which we had thought was now almost completely set to rest, respecting what was called the *common-sense* philosophy. For our part, we are at a loss to discover any advantage that can be gained at this distance of time by reviving this obsolete dispute; more especially under the form in which it is presented by Dr. Beattie, who is the principal object of Dr. Cogan's animadversions: but who, we conceive, is at present universally admitted, notwithstanding his unexampled popularity at the time, to have been by no means the most acute of the celebrated triumvirate attacked by Dr. Priestley. The most distinguished of the remaining disciples of Reid * has lately protested against his common sense being confounded with that of Beattie, which he considers as very objectionable; and he accordingly complains of a want of candour on the part of those who have, as he thinks, taken advantage of an accidental coincidence of phraseology, in order to class together, as partizans of a new sect, writers who agree only in the accidental employment of a particular term on different senses. Nevertheless, we do not think that Mr. Stewart has been successful in establishing any real distinction. It is true that Dr. Reid quotes with approbation a passage from Bentley, in which the term *common sense* is used as synonymous with natural light and reason: — but, when the leading object of his inquiry into the human mind is to shew that what he calls principles of common sense cannot be established by any argument, but must be received in defiance of every principle of logic; that they decline the tribunal of reason, and laugh at all the arguments of philosophy; the only inference which we can deduce from the circumstance above mentioned is that he has occasionally deceived his readers, and probably himself, by

* See Stewart's Elements, vol. ii. p. 85. *et seq.*

the employment of a vague and indefinite term in different senses. As for Dr. C.'s examination of these doctrines, we consider it as in the main satisfactory and conclusive. Still, however, we regret that he undertook a task apparently unsuited to his taste, and by no means calculated to display to the greatest advantage his peculiar merits as a philosophical writer; both because in the present instance it was certainly an unnecessary labour, and because in this, but more especially in the following dissertation against Mr. Hume, we discover no small portion of the usual *seasoning* of controversial debate.

In this succeeding paper, we have an elaborate examination of the metaphysics of Mr. Hume; of which, however, we do not deem it necessary to present our readers with any detailed analysis. It will be sufficient to observe that Dr. C. seems to us to have been too indiscriminate in his attack on the celebrated Scottish metaphysician; whose errors, it is now almost generally acknowledged, arose not so much from the inaccuracy of his premises as from the illogical conclusions which he deduced from them. It is well known that Mr. Hume divided the perceptions or feelings of the mind into the two classes of impressions and ideas. The latter are the effects of the former, and, though less vivid, are conceived to bear in a certain sense a resemblance or analogy to their causes; since in dreams, and various morbid affections of the understanding, they appear to be mistaken for them. In vigilance and health, however, the distinction is always clearly perceived. Hence they are represented by Hume as *copies* or *images* of the impressions to which they correspond. It may be admitted that these terms have not been fortunately selected; since they seem to be exclusively applicable to the effects produced by visible impressions: but it should be recollected that all our language, in speaking of mental phænomena, is necessarily metaphorical; and that no other analogies could be suggested to serve as its basis which would not be liable to similar objections.

Mr. Hume has manifestly advanced this doctrine of impression in order to account for the origin of our ideas independent of a material world. The *impressed* has only to be conscious that he is *impressed*, and that the impressions will soften down into ideas and thoughts, and his whole character is formed without the aid of intermediates. But if our impressions acknowledge a foreign cause, instead of constituting the whole of man, they degenerate into mere conveyances from without; the reporters of what has happened in the streets, in the temple, in the senate, in the army,

in the multitudinous affairs of life; and this favourite magic lantern is shattered into pieces.' (P. 257.)

Surely, Dr. C. would not deny that our ideas are ultimately derived from the impressions made on the external senses. Now, if this be admitted, the true object of our inquiry, when discussing the evidence for the existence of a material world, is into the causes, not of our ideas, but of our sensations; and the only question, necessary to be asked on the subject, is, which hypothesis affords the most easy and natural account of the phænomena; — the supposition of inanimate and impercipient causes, or that of other minds affecting us directly without the use of these intermediate instruments. If we adopt the former, we shall naturally become believers in an external world; if the latter, we shall be led to adopt the opinion of Berkeley and Hume; from which no practical inconvenience, that we perceive, will result.

The volume closes with a disquisition on Moral Obligation, in which the author treats with judgment and ability of the principal questions that occur on this important branch of ethical science. Obligation, he remarks, literally signifies being *bound* to do something; and *moral* obligation signifies being bound to do something for the benefit of another, or in obedience to an injunction. In following this general idea into its details and consequences, he very judiciously preserves a constant reference to that superior power or authority which is the real source of all obligation, but which some late writers have been rather disposed to keep out of view. Obligation has been stated to arise out of the *necessary* connection between certain means and ends; as between the practice of virtue and the attainment of happiness. This connection, it is evident, cannot be dependent on the will of the person obliged, but must arise out of the essential nature of things, or at any rate must be established by the express and acknowledged will of some other being on whom we depend; and who is not only able by the superiority of his power to enforce obedience to his laws by rendering it necessary to our happiness, but likewise inspires respect and veneration by the intrinsic excellence of his nature. It is in these two ways alone that we can conceive of a *necessary* connection being established between certain means and ends; and these, therefore, are to be considered as the two sources of obligation. As the case really stands, however, these two sources in fact coincide, and become one and the same: for the essential nature of things is in reality nothing

more than the course and order of Divine Providence; and it is therefore from the Supreme Fountain of all power and authority that moral obligation originally emanates. Dr. C., accordingly, considers all obligation as ultimately resolvable into the Divine will; and the reason why the practice of virtue is enjoined on the creatures of an infinitely wise and good Being, as arising from its tendency to produce universal happiness.

We must not conclude this article without expressing our favourable opinion of the general merits of this work; in which the author has conferred an additional benefit of no small value on those who had already derived essential improvement from his practical and theological writings. In a few instances, we have regarded it as our duty to object to his reasoning: but we have rarely been induced to question the accuracy of his conclusions; and we cordially recommend the book to those who have a taste for such speculations, as being well calculated to afford them both instruction and entertainment.

ART. IV. *Illustrations of the Literary History of the Eighteenth Century.* Consisting of Authentic Memoirs and Original Letters of eminent Persons; and intended as a Sequel to the *Literary Anecdotes*. By John Nichols, F. S. A. 3 Vols. 8vo. Price 4l. 1s. Boards. Nichols and Co.

HOMER very happily compares the conversation of an old man to descending snows; and he might have added that, as the winter of age advances, the snows usually fall thicker. At least, this is remarkably the case with our literary Nestor; whose last preceding publication was noticed at p. 55. of our lxxxvth volume, and who now assails us with a *vollenge** of three thick octavos more. In bulk they equal, and in detail of contents they surpass, the previous compilations: while, like them, they contain enough of novel anecdote to invite an examination of the pages, if not a continuous perusal.

The principal memoirs in the first volume are of Daniel Wray, Esq. (written by the late Mr. Justice Hardinge,) Charles George Deering, M. D., the Right Honourable John Smith, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer in Scotland, and Richard Richardson, M. D., of North Bierley, in Yorkshire. The domestic history of these gentlemen, and their voluminous correspondence, have supplied the materials of a

* *Vollenge* is a Derbystire word, signifying a sliding mass of snow; probably derived from the Swiss *avalanche*.

large portion of the ensuing pages. Many frivolous letters are printed, but some others occur from men of real celebrity; which, however, like most private communications, being written negligently, and about matters of daily occurrence, disappoint the reader even in spite of the signature. Why collect so much ordinary matter about so many men whose names cannot excite the curiosity of the next generation, and who even now are interesting only to the memories of their personal acquaintance? The *epistles of obscure characters* have indeed formerly been edited with success, when they related to unquiet times, and threw light on the popular history of the Reformation: but these recent documents refer to the uninfluencing literature of a luminous period, and hold the candle to superfluous day-light. If any thing can tend to lower the ornaments of the last generation in the eyes of posterity, it is the profuse and indiscriminate collection of their remains; which is sure to exhibit them with every-day attitudes, busied about ordinary things, in an usual manner, just like their neighbours, and exhibiting the fewest possible traces of any feature or characteristic that was peculiar or meritorious.

We will extract one of the least uninteresting communications that we have been able to discover in the first volume.

‘ *Mr. Thomas Hearne* to Dr. Richardson.*

‘ “Honoured Sir,

Oxon. February 18. 1711-2.

“ Four or five days since I received your letter from Mr. Nevil, in which you have been pleased to communicate to me an account of several antiquities discovered in Yorkshire. The observations and remarks you have made upon each particular are undeniable proofs of your excellent judgment and learning, and I think myself extremely obliged to you upon this account. I shall have a proper occasion of making use of them in my *Review*, and then I will not forget publicly to acknowledge, how much not only myself, but all such as are studious of our English antiquities, are indebted to you. What I said at the end of the first volume concerning Mr. Thoresby's brass instruments was proposed only as conjecture; and I leave the whole entirely to you and others, who are much better judges of these things than I am. I cannot however but acquaint you that Begerus assigns these instruments to the same use I have done, and makes them Roman. This I have learned since I writ and published my *Discourse*. The Roman *Celtæ* were used chiefly in cutting letters upon sepulchral monuments. Such monuments were always looked upon amongst the Romans as sacred, and great penalties were

‘ * Of Edmund Hall, Oxford; the well-known industrious antiquary.’

ordered to be inflicted upon such as should violate them. These penalties are sometimes expressed in the inscriptions. We have instances in our Theatre collection. And the punishment extended itself beyond the stone; even to some yards of ground on each side of it. Hence *in fronte* and *in agro* on several of them. Since therefore these monuments were esteemed to be so holy, and they were so rigorous and severe in inflicting punishments upon those that abused them, we need not at all wonder that brass instruments (which they judged to be sacred) should be employed in cutting their monumental inscriptions, and in other cases of the same nature. Your other observations I shall consider at leisure; and in the mean time I subscribe myself, Sir, your most obliged humble servant,

“THO. HEARNE.”

Various other such letters occur from the same (in many respects) justly celebrated antiquary: yet, when we have read them all, we cannot help being struck with a certain feeling of inanity, — of toil to no very intelligible end, — of precision expended on insignificance, — of inquiry squandered on the gossipry of the past. With an admirable command of information, and a virtuous patience of research, he seldom displays sagacity of inference, or nobleness of purpose; yet so much self-conceit withal, that he presumes to treat Walter Moyle with contempt, who rivalled him as a scholar, and greatly surpassed him as a man of intellect and judgment. Swift appropriated him rightly in the well-known epigram about Time and Thomas Hearne, which every jest-book has so long circulated.

Reputations founded on the physical sciences are, however, more precarious still than those which arise from antiquarian pursuits. Science, as it is called, is always in a progressive state, and is therefore partly transient. The botanical, the chemical, or the zoological nomenclature of one age is reformed by ensuing inquiries; elementary books are manufactured afresh; and authors who were worshipped in the earlier schools are abandoned by the next generation as writers almost of an unknown tongue. Letters are here given in great profusion of the early botanists, such as Sloane, Ray, and Sherard, of the last of whom but little was known.

Much is said in this volume by Mr. Hardinge of Dr. Sneyd Davies, canon-residentiary of Lichfield, whom he wishes to hold up as a poet: but we think that he would have done better to acquiesce in the less favourable opinion of his correspondent, Miss Seward. Dr. D. undertook an abortive tragedy on the subject of Junius Brutus, of which many particulars may be gathered from his correspondence. — Concerning the Reverend William Paley, (father of the Arch-

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L

deacon.)

deacon,) two new supplementary pages are given; and something, far too little for our curiosity, concerning the late Dr. Samuel Henley, of whom indeed more is said in the last of the ensuing volumes: his works ought to be collected.

The second is a truly valuable volume, and contains materials of a far higher class than those which dilate the first; especially a vast collection of Warburton's inedited correspondence, derived from the Birch papers in the British Museum. Bishop Warburton was a man of powerful intellect and of comprehensive learning; naturally intolerant, from that consciousness of inherent power, animal and mental, which always enabled him to knock down his antagonist, but perhaps not so bigoted internally as he professed to be. He expresses himself with the frankness of courage concerning the eminent men and books of his time; and, although he affects some professional prejudices, he is not a treacherous destroyer of rival reputations. Is it probable that the paradoxical argument employed by him in the *Divine Legation* was intended to reveal a weak side of the cause; and that he saw without internal displeasure the use made of his great concession by Voltaire? — In a letter to Dr. Stukeley, dated in February 1732, Warburton thus speaks of Sir Isaac Newton: "As to what you say of Sir Isaac Newton's 'Scripture Prophecy,' I am inclined to think your judgement of it perfectly right. Though he was a prodigy in his way, yet I never expected great things in this kind, which requires a perfect knowledge of antient literature, history, and mankind, from one who spent all his days in looking through a telescope."

We will extract also a letter addressed to Peter Des Maizeaux, the translator of Bayle's Dictionary, which speaks of the origin of a sect now become very important.

' *Newarke, Sept. 16. 1738.*

' I had the pleasure of hearing of your health by Mr. Gyles, in a letter I lately received from him. I find I am indebted to you for the favour of the last *Bibliothèque Britannique*, which he tells me you was so good as to leave at his shop for me. I hope he sent you one of my sermons which I published this summer, and that it met with your approbation.

' Pray what news is there in the learned world? Will you favour us with a Supplement to Bayle, of the English learned? That news would be a great pleasure to me. What think you of our new set of fanatics, called the *Methodists*? I have seen Whitefield's Journal; and he appears to me to be as mad as ever George Fox the Quaker was. These are very fit missionaries, you will say, to propagate the Christian faith among infidels. There is another of them, one Wesley, who came over from the same mission.

sign. He told a friend of mine, that he had lived most deliciously the last summer in Georgia, sleeping under trees, and feeding on boiled maize, sauced with the ashes of oak leaves; that he will return thither, and then will cast off his English dress, and wear a dried skin, like the savages, the better to ingratiate himself with them. It would be well for Virtue and Religion, if this humour would lay hold generally of our overheated bigots, and send them to cool themselves in the Indian marshes. I fancy that Venn and Webster would make a very entertaining as well as proper figure in a couple of bear-skins, and marching in this terror of equipage like the Pagan priests of Hercules of old:

*' Jamque Sacerdotes primusque Politus ibant,
Pellibus in morem cincti, flammasque ferebant.*

' Dear Sir, do me the favour to believe that nothing can be more agreeable than the hearing of you, but the hearing from you; and that I am your very affectionate and obliged humble servant,
' W. WARBURTON.'

Another fragment, from a letter to Jortin:

' Bletierie's Life (of Julian) is indeed a very elegant one, and writ with much candour and impartiality. He is no deep man in the learning of those times, but his good sense generally enables him to seize the right. It is no wonder he should be imposed on by —, when the gross body of our parsons are his dupes. But as Trinculo, who wants to carry Caliban into England, observes that *any thing there makes a man*, so any thing makes a *divine* among our parsons. Our real scholars and divines, the *magnanimi heroes, nati melioribus annis*, have made our learning venerated abroad. Our traders in letters have taken advantage of that prejudice, and puff off all their miserable trash as masterpieces, even to that infamous rhapsody called *The Universal History*. And the deceit was easy. It was impossible for foreigners to suspect that our body of readers are tinkers, cobblers, and carmen; so that when they saw the impatience of this learned public so great that they would not stay for a whole book, but devour it sheet by sheet from the press, they conceived something very exquisite in what was so impatiently snatched at: for we are under the unavoidable necessity, in our general judgment of things, to estimate of foreign ware according to the sale and demand of it; and if our worst books (as they do) sell best at home, they will be known and read abroad. I believe I could give you a long list of capital English books, that were never heard of on the Continent, farther than their titles to be found in some brave dull German catalogue.'

Theobald's Letters to Warburton, concerning Shakspeare, occupy great space in this volume, and chiefly argue about variations in received readings of the text: but the result of this correspondence is already before the public, in the notes

of the respective editors. Warburton's Letters to Dr. Doddridge are also numerous.

Concerning Dr. Lettsom and Mr. Nield, two philanthropists of merit, many agreeable particulars are preserved: but these recent lives are rather unharmoniously interposed among the pillars of an older generation. Like modern mural monuments they disturb the dusky antiquity of the Gothic aisle.

The third volume is inferior to the second, and is chiefly occupied with particulars of the Hardinge family, whose claims to the value of their acquaintance we certainly deem indisputable, but who, in a literary point of view, can hardly deserve so copious, so detailed, so exuberant an illustration. The best of Mr. George Hardinge's works is perhaps his Letter on Catholic Emancipation, here inserted entire at p. 20., &c.; yet this letter is feeble while it is affected in point of style and of conception. His declamation, like that of the present Archbishop of Canterbury, was distinguished for its orthoepy. Some letters of Bishop Watson form the most precious part of the Hardinge correspondence.

Mr. Tanner, Mr. Gough, Dr. Ducarel, Dr. Pococke, Sir Thomas Hanmer, and other known names, glitter occasionally in these pages. We extract a letter of Dr. Ducarel concerning the Bayeux tapestry, which is acquiring in this country a renewed celebrity.

' " Sir,

Doctors' Commons, April 30. 1757.

' " Your very obliging letter, dated so long ago as the 21st of February, now lies unanswered before me; I hope you will excuse this delay when I acquaint you that a multiplicity of business has prevented my writing to you sooner. A friend of mine has your coin, 'IE SVIS DE NATON.' Several antiquaries who have seen it being entirely of my opinion, I shall say nothing more about it. The coins Nos. 1. and 2. in your letter are only French base coins, and the first is struck in Burgundy. No. 3., which you take to have been struck by Stigand, evidently appears to be an old Danish coin, from 'SANCTVS NICOLAVS,' which frequently occurs upon some of the antient moneys of Denmark. — As to Lewine or Girth's not being killed in the battle of Hastings, this notion is not only contrary to all history, but likewise to the most authentic monument of English history now extant in Europe — I mean the famous tapestry preserved in the Cathedral church of Bayeux in Normandy, which represents the conquest of William the Norman, in which is contained not only every incident mentioned by every French and English historian, but also many others not taken notice of by either.

' " I went on purpose to Bayeux to see this fine tapestry in 1752, and very carefully examined every part of it. I there find these words, 'HIC CECIDERVNT LEVVINE ET GVPD FRATRES HAROLDI REGIS.

' " This,

“ This, Sir, is I think an answer to your conjecture on that coin; and, as to Carte's History of England, very little regard is had to any thing he says, unless supported by good authority.

“ I shall at all times be glad to give you any information in my power relating to English antiquities; and beg leave to subscribe myself, Sir, &c.

“ AND. COLTEE DUCAREL.”

Dr. Blackburne's character of Jortin, at p. 718., is a curious communication, but too long for our transcription.—A biography of the late Charles Townley, Esq. whose collection of sculpture now decorates the British Museum, written by Mr. Dallaway, is inserted, and an engraving is prefixed from his bust by Nollekens. His character is thus beautifully given by Dr. Whitaker, in the second edition of his “ History of Whalley:”

“ Though an indefatigable writer, Mr. Townley never printed any thing but a Dissertation on the Ribchester Helmet, in the *Vetusta Monumenta* of the Antiquarian Society. The reason of this reserve may partly have been much native delicacy of mind, and partly a consciousness that his English style was tinctured with foreign idioms. Indeed, he never spoke his native tongue but with some hesitation, and had frequent recourse to French and Italian words to remove his embarrassment.

“ I have just now ascribed to him much native delicacy of mind: a quality never more conspicuous than in the familiar extenuating manner in which he spoke of his own antiquarian treasures: treasures such as the Medici might have boasted of.

“ *Contemptæ dominus splendidior rei.*

“ To young connoisseurs, and in general to his inferiors in taste and science who sought his assistance, he was an active and zealous patron, sparing neither his interest nor his exertions to promote their views. For many such acts of friendship the writer of this memoir has reason to remember him with the warmest affection and gratitude.

“ But it would be injurious to the memory of this excellent person to consider him merely as a virtuoso. He was one of the most benevolent and generous men I have ever known. The demands of taste, however importunate, could never tempt him either to rapacity or retention. In his conduct to a numerous tenantry he was singularly considerate and humane: and whether present or absent from his house in the country, the stream of his bounty to the indigent never dried up or diminished. In one year of general distress, approaching to famine, he distributed among the poor of the neighbouring townships a sum equivalent to a fourth part of the clear income arising from the estate. His personal habits, though elegant, were frugal and unostentatious. He never even kept a carriage. He was an early riser, and an exact economist of his time. To his own affairs he was minutely and

skilfully attentive. In his later years he grew more attached to his native place; and displayed, in adorning the grounds about it, a taste not inferior to that which distinguished his other pursuits. His temper, though naturally cheerful, was calm and sedate. His conversation, though regulated by the nicest forms of good-breeding, was seasoned with a kind of Attic irony, not always unfelt by those about him. His manner had much both of dignity and sweetness. He was happy in a vigorous constitution, and still more so in a slow and sensible decay; for, after half a century of uninterrupted health and spirits, which gave but too keen a relish to every enjoyment, a lingering disorder, which hung over him for the three last years of his life, co-operating with other means, brought him to a deep and serious sense of religion; and in this sense he died.

‘Excepting the last circumstance, he may well be represented in the beautiful character of Atedius Melior, by Statius:*

“*Cui nec pigra quies, nec iniqua potentia, nec spes
Improba, sed medius per honesta et dulcia limes,
Incorrupte fidem, nullosque experte tumultus,
Et secreta palam, qui digeris ordine vitam;
Idem auri facilis contemptor, et optimus idem
Comere divitias, opibusque immittere lucem.*”

“Mr. Townley was interred, January 17. 1805, in the family chapel at Burnley in Lancashire, where those who love his memory would rejoice to see the best judge of sculpture in Europe commemorated by a bust at least. Added to that memorial his name would be enough: for, till this generation shall have passed away, the truest sepulchral panegyric would be useless—in another it would be suspected.

“The following, however, has at length been chosen, and is entitled to a place here for its classical purity and elegance:

M. S.

CAROLI TOWNELEII,

virī ornati, modesti;

*nobilitate stirpis, amœnitate ingenii, suavitate morum,
insignis;*

*qui omnium bonarum artium, præsertim Græcarum,
spectator elegantissimus, æstimator acerrimus, judex
peritissimus,*

*earum reliquias, ex urbium veterum rudibus effossas,
summo studio conquisivit, suâ pecuniâ redemit, in usum
patriæ reposuit;*

*eâ liberalitate animi, quâ, juvenis adhuc,
hæreditatem alteram, vix patrimonio minorem,
fratri spontè cesserat, dono dederat.*

Vixit annos LXVII. menses III. dies III.

Mortem obiit Jan. III. A. S. MDCCCV.”

* Sylva, l. ii. 3.

There is a kind of vulgar hospitality which overloads a table with victuals, and erroneously centres the praise of provision in the bountiful abundance of cheer, rather than in the selection and confection of the viands. Of this awkward provision, the literary caterer for the banquet before us is in some danger of being accused; yet he has certainly dished out fare so various, and often so excellent, that it would betray much ingratitude to refuse praise for his exertions, and much ill-humour to deny that we have derived pleasure from the ample feast.

ART. V. *The Works of Claudian*, translated into English Verse. By A. Hawkins, Esq. F.H.S. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Porter.

"IT is the fault of many a well-meaning man," says Dryden, "to be officious in a wrong place, and to do a prejudice where he had endeavoured to do a service." We fear that this serious truth is as applicable to some of our modern translators of the antient classics, as it was inapplicable to the person to whom it was meant to allude. Dryden possessed every qualification for a translator of Virgil. A rich and glowing imagination, a refined taste and mature judgement, an accurate and critical perception of the beauties of his author's language and the peculiarity of his genius, together with a singular felicity in the art of versification, were endowments which, even in the winter of his days, particularly fitted him for the task of rendering into the language of his country one of the noblest poems of antiquity. Indeed, few works of its kind, labouring under so many disadvantages, composed by a man in the infirmity of age, under the pressure of affliction and disease, and beset with so many impediments that exposed it to the criticism of the learned, have received from the award of public judgment such lasting marks of approbation and deference. From the time of Dryden downwards to a certain extent, it is doing our countrymen no more than justice to say, that long and respectable is the catalogue of those who have enriched the treasures of our literature with the unrivalled poetry of Greece and Rome: insomuch that a competitor for the same prize, in these our degenerate days, would enter the lists under manifest disadvantages, unless gifted with the favours of the muse in a degree proportionate to the difficulty of his office.

Had Mr. Hawkins, before he determined on publication, considered the substance of these observations, we think that he would or *should* have hesitated to submit his performance

to the ordeal of public criticism ; and that we should not have heard him pleading, in excuse of its blemishes, that the field, in which he has chosen to try his strength, was ' untrodden ground.'

' Claudian,' he observes, ' the latest of the Roman classicks, who flourished at the close of the fourth and in the beginning of the fifth century, to whom a statue of brass was raised in the forum of Trajan, even in his life-time, by the reigning emperors, (Arcadius and Honorius,) at the request of the senate, with an inscription which styled him (to use the original expression) *prægloriosissimo poetarum*, who has been allowed by Strada to contend with the five heroick poets, Lucretius, Virgil, Ovid, Lucan, and Statius, and whose admirers are numerous and passionate, has been suffered to remain without a translation in our language ! It must be admitted, however, that a few parts have received an English dress ; but it is believed that no general version has ever appeared.'

True:— but we wish that he had remembered, for his own as well as our sake, that the province of poetical translation was one in which the greatest geniuses of the best æra of our literature have been most successfully engaged, and consequently one that was least favourable to the more inexperienced candidate for poetic fame. It is not very long since the Rape of Proserpine, with other poems of Claudian, translated, or rather, according to the French phrase, *traduced* into English by Mr. Strutt, fell beneath our notice (vol. lxxvii. p. 372.); and most sincerely had we hoped that the censure, which was then extorted from us, would have deterred future adventurers from a voluntary exposure to the same lash. We were as sorry, however, as the most zealous admirers of Claudian could be, to discover, on opening the pages before us, how fatally the author had mis-calculated his qualifications for his most difficult and perilous undertaking.

Claudian was a poet of a peculiar kind. As he was neither a native of Italy nor educated in the language of Rome, which he afterward so successfully cultivated, the attainment of its elegancies was the acquisition of art and study, rather than the gift of nature or the spontaneous fruit of genius. He brought with him into Italy a musical ear, a quickness of perception, and strong energetic powers of thought. With some practice, therefore, he soon attained a degree of success in the art of versification, which ensured him all the poetic honours of his age ; and, spurred on by natural emulation, as well as by the hope of more solid rewards, he continued indefatigable in the pursuit of an object, which promised finally to crown his exertions with advancement, competence, and fame.

fame. Yet, as it is almost universally the case with those who are contented to follow the footsteps of others, rather than ambitious of the praises due to original excellence, his works contain a mixture of the several peculiar features of his great archetypes, without entirely arriving at that superior degree of merit by which each is so eminently distinguished. In descriptive passages, we at times perceive traces, but traces only, of the Virgilian Muse: we have occasionally a portion of the satiric severity of Juvenal, but divested of its peculiar caustic; and, in the ease and melliflence of the minor poems, we recognise the successful imitator of the numbers of Ovid and Tibullus. It is, indeed, in this latter portion of his works that Claudian is most to be admired: for the grandeur of the epic, his genius was but partially qualified: he borrowed, like Virgil, the ideas and images which served to enrich his poetry: but he did not, like his great master, improve on the original. He gave to his subjects more dignity and elevation than they appeared capable of receiving, but they were for the most part as unworthy of record as they were unadapted to the genius of the Muse: they were suited well enough to the age in which he lived, but they had scarcely sufficient interest to survive it. We know not whether we may not ascribe his success in elegiac and epigrammatic poetry, to his very great and early proficiency in the language of Greece; and in this department, besides that it required no such lofty flights of inspiration as the heroic song, the artificial style of the foreigner and the student was far less perceptible. Here his musical ear, and his accurate attention to cadence and harmony, when combined with an acquired turn of thought and flow of language, peculiar to the writers of elegy, soon facilitated his attainment of eminence. Moreover, his taste and judgment, which in other parts of his works appear to have deserted him almost in the same proportion that their assistance was required, in this stood by him, and were ready at his call. In the whole compass of Roman poetry, we are unacquainted with any thing of its kind that is so consonant to our ideas of metrical perfection, as the *Old Man of Verona*. How far Mr. H. has done justice to this or to the larger poems, we will now examine.

We commence with the poem on Rufinus, "*Sæpe mihi dubiam traxit sententia mentem;*" and the opening is a favourable specimen of the version.

' Two adverse sentiments, with doubts combined,
Have oft divided my unsettled mind: —
If o'er this orb the Pow'rs above have sway,
Or man be blindly left to grope his way?

For

For when the mundane harmony I knew; —
 The ocean limited: — the seasons true; —
 The regular return of day and night:
 I cried — a God directs with prescient light.
 The stars his laws observe; — the fruits appear,
 In turn, at different periods of the year;
 Inconstant Phœbe freely borrows rays;
 And Sol his own resplendent beams displays;
 The wavy waters are by shores controlled;
 And, balanced on its axis, Earth is rolled.
 But when the lot of human kind I found
 Involved in mazy darkness, spread around;
 Crime revelling in joy and plenteous store,
 While suffering Virtue dire distresses bore:
 Religion, weakened, lost again her sway,
 And, with regret, I turned another way.
 All Nature's elements, in empty space,
 At random move and various figures trace;
 No heav'nly pow'r, but Chance appears to guide;
 No gods: — or mortals' actions they deride.'

Though, as a translation, this passage is much more correct than many others which we shall hereafter cite, it is too cold and languid to deserve the name of poetry, and to render justice to the spirit and energy of the original. '*Mundane harmony*' is surely an inadmissible expression for the harmony of nature; and when we are told that 'the fruits appear,' and that 'inconstant Phœbe borrows rays,' &c., the moving principle and cause of all this is carefully concealed. According to Mr. H.'s translation, the sentiment might as well come from the mouth of an atheist, as from a believer in the existence of the Deity. The lines of the original run thus:

— " *tunc omnia rebar
 Consilio firmata Dei, qui lege moveri
 Sidera, qui fruges diverso tempore nasci,
 Qui variam Phœben alieno jusserit igni
 Compleri, Solemque suo: porrexerit undis
 Littora: tellurem medio libaverit axe.*"

The concluding line in the above translation, which represents the Gods as *deriding mortals' actions*, is entirely incorrect. So far from the Gods deriding them, the words of the original convey the sense of their entire ignorance of human affairs:

— " *Quæ Numina sensu
 Ambiguo, vel nulla putat, vel nescia nostri.*"

After this introductory description of the doubts and uncertainty which troubled the poet's mind respecting the divine

divine presidency over mortal concerns, he spiritedly exclaims:

*" Abstulit hunc tandem Rufini pœna tumultum,
Absolvitque Deos. Jam non ad culmina rerum
Injustos crevisse queror : tolluntur in altum,
Ut lapsu graviore ruant ;"*

which we are sorry to find thus lamely rendered :

*' Rufinus dead ! my mind's at length relieved ;
Absolved the deities by what's achieved ;
No wretch, to honours raised, shall me appal ;
The higher carried, greater is the fall.'*

The total want of taste and spirit is here sufficiently obvious. The second line, which we suppose is to be understood to mean that 'the Deities *are* absolved,' &c., is a stronger instance of elliptical expression and perversion of syntax than we recollect to have seen in poetry even of the most moderate order; and the whole, we are sorry to observe, savours much of the insipidity of a school-boy's exercise.

The particularly spirited description of Alecto's council in the infernal shades, which bears a comparison with any passage of its kind in Virgil or Dante, we scarcely recognised in its English garb :

*' When tranquil peace the empire lately blessed,
Infuriate envy filled Alecto's breast ;
In haste she called her hideous sisters round,
To form a council in the gloom profound :
Infernal, num'rous pests, detesting light,
Begot by Erebus and odious Night.
Dire Discord, nurse of War, and Famine too ;
Old Age with ghastly Death upheld to view ;
Disease impatient, seeking to destroy ;
And Malice, pining at another's joy ;
Deep Sorrow, covered with a tattered veil,
In sable robe distresses to bewail ;
Mistrust ; and Impudence with brazen face ;
And Luxury where, ruin, empires trace ;
And Poverty, that trembles with alarms,
While in the mother, Avarice's arms,
(Loathed, filthy monster !) nestle swarms of Cares,
Whose watchful eyes ne'er feel what Sleep prepares.'*

*' And famine too' is in the original " Imperiosa famas."
' Old age with ghastly Death upheld to view' is " Leto vicina senectus ;" i. e. old age bordering on death, on the brink of the grave ; and ' upheld to view' is not only the interpolation of the translator, but entirely destroys the whole force of the original.*

original. Why should Old Age and Death be made a public exhibition, like *Jack Puddings* at Bartholomew fair? The line, '*Disease impatient, seeking to destroy*,' induces us to think that Mr. H. has here overlooked the sense of his author: whose words are, "*Impatiensque sui Morbus*," meaning disease impatient of itself, loathing its own nature and existence; whereas the version of Mr. H. conveys the idea of the impatience of disease to destroy another. Why is *Timor*, simply *Timor*, rendered mistrust? — '*Impudencie with brazen face*' is "*Cæco præceps Audacia vultu*." Surely, Impudence and Audacity are distinct; and *cæco vultu* signifies rather blindfolded, or with eyes shut, inconsiderate, impetuous, headstrong, a sense which we should have deemed sufficiently implied by the word *præceps*. The line '*And Luxury, where ruin empires trace*,' if it were poetry, would not be grammar; and for *where* we must read *whence* in order to extract the least meaning from the passage: but why empires at all? Claudian's words are, "*Et Luxus populator opum*;" and obviously private as well as public wealth is here represented to be the victim of luxury. These last lines may be literally translated thus, and we leave them to be compared with the poetical version: "*And Luxury, the destroyer of Wealth, whom hapless Poverty always accompanies closely with humble step, and sleepless cares, come in extensive swarms, embracing the foul bosom of Avarice their mother*."

We hoped that, as Mr. Hawkins advanced in his undertaking, his versification would have assumed more energy, his judgment more solidity, and his taste more refinement; and in this case we should gladly have availed ourselves of the opportunity of remarking the improvement, in order to diversify our censures by the more pleasing notes of approbation and encouragement. Of the cause which prevents us from doing this, we leave others to judge; and the same cause will also justify the haste with which we close our notice of the volumes. We extract, however, as a farther and longer specimen, the version of the *Old Man of Verona*, which we cannot forbear to present to our readers in the original also:

"*Felix, qui patriis ævum transegit in agris,
Ipsa domus puerum quem videt, ipsa senem;
Qui basulo nitens, in quâ reptavit arenâ,
Unius numeret sæcula longa casæ.
Illum non vario traxit fortuna tumultu,
Nec bibit ignotas mobilis hospes aquas,
Non freta mercator tremuit, non classica miles,
Non rauci lites pertulit ille fori.*

Indociles

*Indocilis rerum : vicina nescius urbis,
 Adspectu fruitur liberiore poli.
 Frugibus alternis, non Consule, computat annum;
 Autumnum pomis, ver sibi flore notat.
 Idem condit ager Soles, idemque reducit,
 Metiturque suo rusticus orbe diem.
 Ingentem meminit parvo qui germine quercum,
 Equævumque videt consenuisse nemus.
 Proxima cui nigris Verona remotior Indis,
 Benacumque putat litora rubra lacum.
 Sed tamen indomitæ vires, firmisque lacertis
 Ætas robustum tertia cernit avum.
 Erret, et extremos alter scrutetur Iberos.
 Plus habet hic vitæ, plus habet ille viæ."*

' How blessed the man who, 'mid paternal plains,
 Through life's long course with constancy remains;
 The house, that met his eyes in boyish years,
 Still proves his own when hoary age appears;
 And, while with staff he struggles through the ground,
 He seasons counts, his roof has seen go round.
 Capricious Fortune, him, no troubles, gave,
 Nor wandered he to taste the distant wave.
 No merchant, — dreading floods that lash the shore;
 No soldier, — shudd'ring at the clarions' roar;
 The clamours never, of the courts of law,
 Assailed his ears with sounds of quibbling flaw.
 A stranger to affairs or cities near,
 He more enjoys the sight of ether clear; —
 Computes revolving time by crops of corn, —
 Not names that splendid consul-robes adorn.
 To him the apple, signs of Autumn, bring,
 And opening flow'rs announce return of Spring;
 The very field, that views the Sun's decline,
 Again receives at morn the ray divine;
 The circle that at once his eyes survey,
 To him appears the measure of the day;
 The oaks majestick, back to mem'ry call
 Their gradual rising from the acorn small;
 The neighb'ring wood, he takes delight to view:
 His own coeval trees, that with him grew.
 Though near Verona, yet to him the place
 Is equally remote with India's race;
 Benacus' lake he truly knows no more,
 Than waves that roll upon the Red Sea shore.
 But yet his strength invincible is found,
 And, three-fold progeny, he sees around.
 Let others travel far as distant Spain; —
 More ways *those* know: most *days* to *this* remain.'

On this citation, we shall make but one remark, viz. on
 the strange perversion of the words, "*Qui baculo nitens,*"
 &c.

&c. The old man is represented by the poet leaning on his staff, in the same arena in which he crawled in his infancy: but Mr. H. depicts him in a most singular manner, '*struggling through the ground with his staff*;' whence we might suppose that the old gentleman, instead of enjoying himself at his country-villa, was making the best of his way to the Antipodes.

From the preceding extracts and observations, our readers will have already formed some judgment of the general merits of the work under review. We have not, indeed, encountered in the pages before us such strange violations of the rules of quantity as the production of Mr. Strutt displayed; and we must do Mr. Hawkins the justice to say that his work, both in its design and its execution, is far more intitled to public notice: he appears, indeed, to possess a mind imbued to a certain extent with a taste and fondness for classical literature, and he has shewn considerable perseverance in the execution of a task of no ordinary dimensions and difficulty. On these points, let him take all the praise that is deservedly his due. *Illâ se jactet in aulâ.* Still we cannot help observing and regretting, in a translator of Claudian, a woful absence of genuine poetic feeling; a want of habit and facility, as we conceive, in the art of metrical composition; and an inattention to the little niceties and elegancies of Latin verse, in which it is so particularly necessary for the English translator to be thoroughly and fundamentally versed, before he should attempt to transfuse them into the language of his country. Hence, in the volumes before us, we have frequent instances of insipidity and tameness, where the opposite qualities of energy and spirit were essentially requisite to do justice to the original. Hence, also, so many examples of needless amplification in one place, of inadmissible ellipses in another, of false interpretations in a third, and in a fourth of grammatical mistakes.

Before we conclude, we must offer a remark on Mr. H.'s great partiality for closing his couplets with adjectives and epithets, by which the whole force of the line is rendered tame and flat. A particular instance occurs in a page now open before us:

' Bows, monuments of glory, javelins long,
And other horrid weapons, *sharp and strong.*'

Witness also sundry others: '*costly ornaments and jewels rare*;'— '*Luna reigns with splendour bright*;'— '*noble deeds and actions bold*;' &c. &c.

Among the inelegant lines, and those which demand no ordinary portion of the *limæ labor*, may be reckoned the following :

‘ Their weal the fickle Goddess *don’t* suspend.’ Vol. i. p. 3.

‘ Cilicians, mid their rocks, defence *gave o’er*.’ P. 77.

Of a lion we are told that he

—— ‘ the den forsakes,

And to Gætulian woods and deserts *takes* :’

Of mothers and youths, that they

—— ‘ gratified their *opticks* with delight.’ P. 143.

‘ The cold and snowy Apenninus *get*
Upon the Pyrenees,’ &c. Vol. i. p. 161.

The words “ *Non Consul cum fratre fuit* ” are thus singularly and ungrammatically rendered ;

‘ Nor Consul with him was a brother’s lot.’

In the opening of *The Rape of Proserpine*, a description of Bacchus occurs, in which we are gravely told, *inter alia*, that ‘ a Parthian tiger’s skin o’erhangs *his chine*.’ At line 34. of the same poem, our powers of criticism are brought (as perhaps they now should be) to a *non-plus* :

‘ The rape of Proserpine, her dow’ry show ;
For whom she gained the empire of *Below*.’

Who this latter personage is, we must request Mr. H. to ‘ *show* :’ for we confess that his name and history have not come within the compass of our reading.

We now close these volumes, with a repetition of our regret at having been summoned to the painful task of censure, so much less qualified than we could have wished it to have been by an intermixture of commendation. On a fair and impartial revision of our sentiments, however, we feel no compunction on the score of unjust or unnecessary severity ; and sincerely do we hope that Mr. H. will continue to maintain the same patience under criticism, which he has shewn in the execution of the work that has provoked it. As he does not yet possess all the necessary qualifications for his arduous undertaking, how much wiser would it have been to have delayed publication, until time and experience had matured his judgment, and corrected his taste ! If, in his pursuit of the prize of fame, he overlooked the dangers which surrounded it, we lament his error : but we cannot consent to compromise the cause of truth, and we must adhere to the adage, (which we should also wish him to bear in mind,) that so truly and pointedly marks the time when “ *Judex damnatur*.”

ART. VI. *Outline of the Revolution in Spanish America; or an Account of the Origin, Progress, and actual State of the War carried on between Spain and Spanish America; containing the principal Facts which have marked the Struggle. By a South-American.* 8vo. pp. 370. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

SEVERAL years have passed since we had occasion to enter at length on the subject of a war between Spain and her American colonies; our reports of books on that subject dating so far back as March 1809 and April 1811. In those numbers, we rendered an account of the existing grievances of the colonists, and of the motives of that ardour to assert their independence which awaited only the occurrence of favourable contingencies in Europe. Their country, equal in extent to twice the size of Europe, was debarred from free intercourse with other states; even the communication from province to province was restricted; all merchandise was to be obtained from Old Spain; and, though the rigour of this monopoly had been partly lessened about the year 1778, it still continued to a degree which kindled a thirst for independence in the breast of the colonists, that prompted them to take advantage of the confusion created in Old Spain by Bonaparte's usurpation in 1808. The writer of the volume before us takes up the subject at the date of that grand convulsion; describing himself as having been an eye-witness of many of the operations that have occurred in the Spanish colonies since those feelings, which were formerly confined to discontent and remonstrance, have burst forth into open and rancorous hostility.

The colonists did not, however, proceed immediately to the alternative of war: their first measure was to form provincial juntas, followed by a central or general junta, without casting off their allegiance to the mother-country: but, when the progressive occupation of Spain by the French became known, and the government of that kingdom was confined within the walls of Cadiz, the Americans went farther, and assumed the right of governing themselves. This conduct was viewed at home in the light of insurrection and rebellion; and Old Spain, far from profiting by the warning which the case of England might have furnished them, and being thence induced to consider the separation of her colonies as productive of eventual advantage, clung to the antiquated notions of monopoly, and declared war against the new governments. That event took place in 1810, from which time the course of public affairs in Caraccas, Mexico, and Buenos Ayres presents nothing but a succession of sanguinary struggles. The quarrel had become too aggravated to be terminated, or even

mitigated, by the restoration of the royal family in Spain in 1814; and the newspapers continue to present almost daily accounts of the prolongation of a contest, in which it is hard to say whether the obstinacy or the inhumanity of the contending parties is most conspicuous.

The population of the whole of Spanish America is about 13 millions, exclusive of Indians: the Creoles or white natives form the great majority, and are ardent for independence and separation from the mother-country: but the settlers, who, being natives of Old Spain, have come to America as emigrants, have in general a very different feeling; and it is by them, aided by troops from the mother-country, that the opposition has been maintained.

The whole of Spanish America may be divided, with reference to the revolutionary movements, into four great parts; Mexico; Caraccas; the interior province of New Grenada; and Buenos Ayres. Caraccas, or, to speak more comprehensively, the government of Venezuela, though the smallest of the four divisions, having hardly a million of inhabitants, was earlier enabled by its vicinity to the sea, and its greater foreign intercourse, to assert its independence: it was the native country of the late General Miranda, the scene of his unsuccessful effort in 1806, and of his more formidable operations in 1810. On the other hand, it is easily accessible by Spanish armaments, and has consequently been often lost and won in the course of the last eight years. Bolivar, whose name figures so frequently in our newspapers, is a native of Caraccas, but was educated in Europe; and he is not a mere adventurer, but a man of hereditary property, who, like some of the French nobility in the beginning of the Revolution, hopes to make a figure by putting himself at the head of the untitled class. Brion, the late commander of the patriotic flotilla, is also a man of property. — Both sides have had recourse to the desperate expedient of putting arms into the hands of the negroes; in other words, of arresting the whole productive industry of the country.

The scenes of judicial murder in the French Revolution are here renewed; even prisoners taken in fair fighting are (pp. 149. 152.) frequently put to death; and of the acrimony that marks this bitter warfare we select the following specimens from the journal, not of a partisan of either side, but of an Englishman, Captain Hardy, of the ship *Mermaid*.

“Cumana, 12th June, 1816.

“I witnessed the following barbarous act. A female of a most respectable family in Cumana, having spoken against the Spanish government, and in favour of the patriotic party, was
RAW. JUNE, 1819.

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placed

placed on an ass, led through the streets, attended by a guard of ten soldiers; at the corner of every street, and opposite the houses of her nearest connexions, she received a certain number of lashes on her bare back, nearly two hundred, the number she was sentenced to receive. The poor sufferer was blindfolded, and bore the inhuman treatment with as much fortitude as was ever possibly exhibited on a similar occasion. Her cries were feeble, but I could discover, notwithstanding that a handkerchief concealed her face, her tears trickling down.

“I saw but one dozen lashes inflicted. Some of my crew, who were on shore, saw the whole sentence put in execution. My feelings were too much shocked for curiosity even to overcome them. I made particular inquiries respecting the unfortunate girl two days after, and was informed that she refused all food and medical assistance; and in a few days after that, I heard that she was dead, being unable, from her exquisite feelings, to survive the disgrace and pain she had suffered.”

Amid such scenes of horror and indiscriminate carnage, it is some satisfaction to trace examples of patriotism which would have done honour to the best days of Rome or Athens:

‘An officer, of the name of Ricaute, whose family was among the most distinguished at Santa Fé de Bogota, was appointed to guard a powder magazine when San Mateo was attacked, the 25th of March, 1814. The royalists thought to take it by surprise while the armies were fighting at some distance, and sent for this purpose a strong detachment of troops to attack the magazine. The young Ricaute having observed the movements of the enemy, saw the impossibility of resistance, and gave orders to his soldiers to join the army, asserting that he was sufficient alone for the defence of the magazine. The Spaniards surrounded it, and took possession of the building, and having discovered Ricaute, were just seizing him, when he set fire to the powder. The magazine was destroyed by an instantaneous explosion, and he fell a victim to that inevitable death he had foreseen.’

New Grenada is an inland region of great extent, stretching from Venezuela on the north to Peru on the south, and containing nearly three millions of inhabitants: its capital, Santa Fé de Bogota, has a population of 35,000. Here, as throughout Spanish America at large, a desire for independence existed among the Creoles, or descendants of former settlers; which was checked, however, for a time, by their habitual indolence, and their unacquaintance with the proceedings of foreign countries. At last, following the example of Caracas, a native junta was established, and the Spanish authorities were removed from office: but, dissensions taking place, a civil war began, and led, as in the neighbouring provinces, to miserable scenes of bloodshed.

Mexico

Mexico is by much the most populous and opulent division of Spanish America, the capital containing 140,000 inhabitants, and the country having not fewer than 6,000,000. The first insurrection arose here in the end of 1810, and was followed by a long series of conflicts and executions; until the government was intrusted to Admiral Apodaca, formerly the Spanish ambassador in London, a man of much superior views to the majority of his countrymen, and whose system is not to intimidate the Mexicans, but to gain their confidence by mild measures. This conduct seems to have been attended, for the present at least, with success: but the vicinity of the United States, and the general wish of the inhabitants for independence, forbid the expectation of any thing beyond temporary tranquillity.

Buenos Ayres, Chili, and Paraguay. — In Buenos Ayres, the revolutionary spirit is not of old date, having been excited chiefly by our invasion in 1806, and the confusion created in Old Spain by the insurrection against Bonaparte. Though in possession of European settlers for nearly three centuries, this country is in a very backward state; agriculture has been little followed; and immense tracts are abandoned to herds of cattle, from which little profit is derived except for the hides. The population is still thinly scattered, not exceeding 1,000,000 for a tract of country equal to France, Germany, Great Britain, and Spain united. Of these the great majority are descendants of Spaniards, while a part, small in number, but considerable from their comparative efficiency, are natives of Old Spain: the former are partisans of separation and independence; the latter, of a continued connection with the mother-country. Unfortunately, divisions and even hostilities have taken place among the former, who would otherwise have been amply competent to repel the Spaniards. Monte Video being open to the sea, and strongly fortified, enabled the Spanish troops to make a stand there in the early part of the revolution, and their surrender did not take place till after long continued efforts on the part of their opponents. Among the latter, a great difference of opinion unluckily prevailed, respecting the form of government most proper for Buenos Ayres and the adjacent provinces; some urging a federal association, as in the United States; and others advising a renunciation of provincial privileges, and a consolidation of power in the hands of a central body.

Chili, an extensive and narrow tract of country to the south of Peru, lying along the shore of the Pacific, as the United States lie along that of the Atlantic, contains a thinly scattered population of less than a million, and has for its capital

St. Jago, an inland-town of 40,000 inhabitants. Here also the ardour of the Creoles led to revolutionary movements, so early as 1811: which were followed by partial dissensions, and by a formidable invasion of Spanish royalists from Peru, who for a time were successful, but were afterward driven out by a patriotic force from Buenos Ayres, commanded by General St. Martin.

Finally, Paraguay, a country with peculiar habits and institutions, has followed a distinct course in the career of revolution; establishing a government of its own, but avoiding any connection with the colonies either to the north or to the south.

After these details of the occurrences in particular provinces, we proceed to those that are common to Spanish America at large. The insurgents have made repeated attempts to interest foreign powers in their cause, an envoy having gone to Washington so early as 1810, and having since been followed by several negotiators; to all of whom the answers of the American government have expressed a cordial feeling in their cause, but have been followed by a refusal to join in hostilities against Old Spain, with which, if not in alliance, they are at peace. Bonaparte, when in power, had a much more decided disposition: but his want of naval means, and his disasters after 1812, prevented him from interfering at the time when it would have been most effectual. England was long the great object of the hopes of the revolutionists; the plan of separating the colonies from the mother-country having been disclosed by General Miranda to Mr. Pitt at the time of our armament against Spain in 1790, and subsequently urged whenever the existence of hostilities between the two countries seemed to afford a favourable opening. This was more particularly the case in 1797, when Spain had allied herself with the revolutionary government of France, and had taken part in the war against us; and, Trinidad having fallen into our possession, General Picton, the governor of the island, was ordered to circulate a proclamation (dated 7th April, 1797,) in which Mr. Dundas, as minister for the war and colonies, recommended the adoption of the means best adapted to liberate the people of the adjacent continent from the commercial monopoly of the mother-country. In this remarkable state-paper, Mr. D. assured the Spanish Americans of being supported in their resistance by British troops, or aided by supplies of arms and ammunition; and he added that the views of the British government pointed solely to the establishment of their independence, without pretending to

to any sovereignty over their country. Such was the object of our ministers not only in the latter years of the first war with revolutionary France, but in the years 1805, 1806, and 1807 of the late contest. In 1808, the measures of our cabinet proceeded in the same spirit, and seemed even to put on the appearance of an actual invasion of Spanish America in behalf of the insurgents; an armament being assembled at Cork, and the news-papers in the interest of government containing political disquisitions in recommendation of the emancipation. At this important moment, came the news of the insurrection in Old Spain against the oppression of Bonaparte; when the troops who were embarked, and ready to put to sea, received a new destination, and were sent under Sir Arthur Wellesley to Portugal, where they fought the battle of Vimeira and afterward entered Spain. From that time forwards, our government considered itself as in close alliance with the mother-country, and declined to give either aid or countenance to the insurgents. Envoys from them have repeatedly come to London, and resided there, but without obtaining assistance from ministers; who, in compliance with the solicitation of the Spanish government, have even discouraged our half-pay officers from taking service in a private capacity in the colonial cause.

It remains to add a few words with regard to the composition of the book under review. We are not disposed to be severe on 'A South American' for the occasional introduction of a foreign idiom, as 'junta central,' instead of central junta; and still less are we inclined to affix that blame which he seems to apprehend in his preface, for passing over several scenes of bloodshed: but we must complain, in rather pointed terms, of the want of care in the selection of the materials. The narrative is very unequal, being occasionally short and abrupt, while at other times it contains official papers of too great length to be introduced into the text: though several of them, as the letters of Morillo, (pp. 206. 214.) are interesting; and on the whole the account appears to have been composed from respectable sources. The author is an ardent well wisher to the cause of the Independents, and takes great care to avoid any admission of the disappointments experienced by those officers who have gone out from Europe to carry arms in their behalf. We admire his zeal in the cause of freedom; and we should express our wishes more warmly for its success in Spanish America, were not the inhabitants of many of the provinces in a state so ignorant and backward as to afford little hope of their being able to enjoy liberty without

abusing it. The excesses of which they have been guilty, we mean the destruction of peaceful dwellings, the violation of solemn promises, and, above all, the execution of prisoners, present a far less encouraging prospect than that which was exhibited forty years ago by our insurgent colonists in the northern states.

ART. VII. *Spanish America*; or a Descriptive, Historical, and Geographical Account of the Dominions of Spain in the Western Hemisphere, Continental and Insular; illustrated by a Map of Spanish North America, and the West-India Islands; a Map of Spanish South America, and an Engraving, representing the comparative Altitudes of the Mountains in those Regions. By R. H. Bonnycastle, Captain in the Corps of Royal Engineers. 2 Vols. 8vo. 11. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

WE have given a brief report of the origin of the present commotions of South America in the preceding article, with some particulars of the various provinces of that vast region. In the volumes before us, we have an enlarged account of them; and we may therefore again indulge in some reflections, and some details, on a subject which deservedly engages at present the attention of the statesman, the soldier, and the merchant. A war for the right of native and inherent government has been undertaken by the South Americans; and so great is the extent and so slight the cohesion of the various provinces, that several distinct empires seem likely to struggle into being. In order to drill and discipline the untutored but courageous population, many European officers have been invited to mingle in the armies of the patriots, and wave the banners of independence: while sea-ports, hitherto choked up by the bars of monopoly, are thrown open to an irregular commerce, which endangers while it rewards the adventurer, and which is preparing the access of foreign merchants and new wares into every considerable town. Additional wants, physical and intellectual, are becoming familiar to vast nations; and a great revolution of habits and ideas, of properties and sympathies, is taking place with a rapidity which gives to years the innovating force of centuries.

The Spanish-American patriots are very silent in their public proclamations on the subject of religion: they appear to think that tolerance is better learned as a habit than as a principle; and, although they accustom themselves readily to commercial intercourse and military docility under heretics, yet nothing announces a disposition to admit rival temples and

and to protect hostile altars. It is a *Catholic* emancipation for which they are contending, and which will probably open to Irish enterprize a more convenient field of exertion than to Protestant settlers of any description. This ambition of independence is not strongly tinctured with the real love of liberty. General Bolivar has to call on the people of the Orinoko to choose a civil government for themselves; they would have else been content to leave with their military chieftain the entire direction of the police. If other districts partake this apathy, a government by the priesthood, terminating in the nominal superintendence of an hereditary monarch, may await New Spain as well as Old Spain. Protestant sectarianism inures the people to govern themselves: it calls vestry-meetings, chooses the priest, the chapel-warden, and the overseer; superintends the doctrine, the repairs, and the alms of the temple; and habituates every member of the congregation to alternate office and responsibility. Catholicism, on the contrary, accustoms the devotee to be directed and to have his spiritual concerns managed by others: the priest is imposed by a higher hand; and he exacts the obedience from laymen, of which he sets an example towards his superior. Hence the Catholic colonies, though a century older than those of North America, and though founded in a climate more favourable to production and population, have been outstripped by their younger and Protestant rivals, in the arts of government and the amelioration of social order.

A good account of these Catholic colonies was, however, a great desideratum in our literature. Mr. Pinkerton's valuable geography was published before the travels of Humboldt, which in fact first made known the Spanish settlements, and supplied the information necessary to delineate them well. Captain Bonnycastle has availed himself of this important aid, and to the general knowledge of Pinkerton superadds the local observations of Humboldt: while his distribution of materials is convenient, though not free from repetition, and his method of writing is perspicuous, unaffected, and concise. The work is divided into two parts; of which the first comprehends the Spanish dominions in North America, including the West-Indian islands subject to the crown of Spain; and the second part relates to Spanish South America, and the islands on its coasts. Each portion is illustrated by a map, on which the author has bestowed meritorious attention, both in placing and inserting names that were hitherto obscure: though these maps are on too small a scale for ready convenience, Angostura, for instance, not being deemed considerable enough to find a place. An engraving, representing at

one view the relative heights of the principal Andes and volcanoes, also occurs.

After an introduction of twenty-five pages, the author enters on his geographical survey; relating first the discovery and colonization, and then describing the extent, the boundaries, the political and the territorial divisions of Spanish America. Florida is somewhat unnaturally described first; then New Spain; then Guatemala; and, lastly, the West-Indian islands subject to Spain: the order of discovery and colonization being thus in some respects inverted. The details collected concerning these provinces suffice to fill a volume of 336 pages. We will give a specimen of the compilation in the description of a province in New Spain.

' Oaxaca is described as the finest, healthiest, and most productive province of New Spain; and its former inhabitants were amongst the most civilized of the people discovered by the Spanish conquerors. It is extremely mountainous, and is divided into two highland districts, called Mixteca and Tzapoteca. The Cordillera, which runs through the province, falls to the oceans on either side; and it is said the mountains are so high, that in one or two points, the Pacific and Atlantic may be observed at the same time, the summits are however not so high as those of Mexico, and their substance differs widely. In Oaxaca, granite and gneiss compose the ridges; whilst in Mexico, basaltes, amygdaloid, porphyry, and grunstein, are the strata which form those tremendous elevations.

' The most singular monument of the ancient inhabitants of this province is the ruins of Mitla, which was the burial place of the chiefs or kings of the country, and is finely constructed of stone, covered with sculpture; the excavations under the building are very large, and lined with large engraved stones. Six columns of porphyry, sixteen feet in height, of a single piece each, support the roof of a large room, and the whole is in good preservation; many curious paintings having been found amongst the rubbish.

' These ruins are ten leagues south-east of Oaxaca.

' The province is celebrated, as part of it forming a grant made to Cortez, for his services, with the title of Marquess.

' It consists of four towns and forty-nine villages, and now belongs to the Duke of Monte Leone, a descendant of the conqueror.

' The rivers of Oaxaca are principally the Rio Verde, on which Oaxaca stands, which rises in the mountains of Higher Mixteca, and falls into the Pacific; the river Chicometapea, after receiving others, falls into the Pacific, north of the former.

' The river Chimalapa, on the southern boundary, which falls into the bay of Tecoaatepec, and several smaller ones along the coast, all of which proceed from the mountains, water the country, render it fertile, and also fall into the Pacific.'

The

The account of San Juan also deserves notice; because this town will perhaps one day be the site of a great enterprize, which will change the course of the commerce of the world, and more nearly unite Great Britain with her East-Indian possessions. We mean the opening of a canal navigable for large shipping across the isthmus of Darien. Surely, in the present anarchic state of European Spain, it would not be impracticable for the British government to acquire, by purchase, so much of the province of Guatimala as is essential to a proper survey, and a military defence, of the territory through which such a canal would have to pass;—and surely it would be an enterprize highly honourable and profitable to this country, and widely conducive to the convenience and civilization of the world, to open such a canal for commerce during the present period of peace. There are trophies purer, nobler, and more permanent than those of the warrior; namely, the monuments of the useful arts;—the piers and light-houses which announce to the sailor a hospitable shore, the roads and bridges of traffic, and the canals of navigation. Of all these undertakings, the greatest and most influential remains to be accomplished, the junction of the Atlantic with the Pacific ocean; and a sublime glory and a perpetual gratitude await the nation and the sovereign which shall first realize so vast a benefit to mankind.

* St. Juan is a sea-port thirty miles south-east of Leon, in $12^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude, $87^{\circ} 38'$ west longitude, and there are some others of little note.

* The river St. Juan is the stream which affords an outlet to the lakes of Nicaragua and Leon into the Caribbean sea. Its length is about 100 miles; this river is navigated by boats and canoes carrying tallow and goods to Porto Bello, 240 miles distant, but they are obliged to make three portages, which is owing to some obstructions in the course. These carrying places are defended, and at one of them is the Fort St. Juan, called also the Castle of Neustra Senora, on a rock, and very strong; it has thirty-six guns mounted, with a small battery, whose platform is level with the water; and the whole is enclosed on the land side by a ditch and rampart. Its garrison is generally kept up at 100 infantry, sixteen artillery men, with about sixty of the militia, and is provided with batteaux, which row guard every night up and down the stream. Some slaves are allowed for the menial services of the garrison, and this post is supplied with provisions, fowls, garden-stuff, &c. from Granada, distant 180 miles, being usually provisioned for six months. The climate is very unhealthy as it is always raining, and the place requires to be constantly recruited from Guatimala. This port is looked on as the key of the Americas, and with the possession of it and Realejo on the other side of the lake, the Spanish colonies might

be paralyzed by the enemy being then master of the ports of both oceans. This river St. Juan has also been proposed as the means of joining the Atlantic and Pacific oceans; its great length, the necessity for making only two or three cuts to avoid its obstructions, the immense depth of the lakes Nicaragua and Leon, and a short canal of twelve or fourteen miles on the western side, would effect this object; thus rendering an easy and safe communication from the West Indies, the coast of the Spanish main, and the eastern shore of New Spain to the Pacific Ocean. It is to be supposed that the Spaniards would not have neglected an opportunity thus afforded them by nature, had not political reasons suggested the impropriety of the undertaking.

The second volume describes first the Caraccas, then Peru, next the province of La Plata, of which Buenos Ayres is the metropolis, and, lastly, Chili and the islands along the coast of South America. The account of Caraccas is peculiarly full of new information; various particulars are given of the patriotic General Bolivar; and the importance of the river or rio Magdalena to commerce is maintained. Some portions of Spanish Guiana intervene between the British settlements on the Demerary and the Essequibo, and the eastern bank of the Orinoko, which the British government would do well to acquire. Now that a progressive insecurity is overspreading the Spanish dominions, a fugitive colonization is readily obtained for any regularly protected district; and some relaxation of those laws, which resist an easy and untaxed intercourse between the West-Indian islands and the continent of South America, should perhaps be allowed, until the new forms, to which commerce is tending in that neighbourhood, are better ascertained. It may be true that contraband traders are rapidly assisting in this ascertainment: but, in the present maritime anarchy of the Caribbean sea, all smuggling vessels are treated as lawful prizes; and much British property thus becomes the prey of patriotic privateers.

Capt. Bonnycastle has not sanguine ideas of the probable success of the insurgents, and thus speaks of their enterprize:

‘ The 4th of July, 1811, was the day on which the congress of Venezuela proclaimed themselves the representatives of the free provinces of Caraccas; and the little village of Mariara, close to the beautiful lake of Valencia, saw the first blood that was spilt in the civil war of these unfortunate countries. On the return of the king to his throne, on which he was placed by the glorious and ever-memorable conduct of the British and Spanish troops commanded by the Duke of Wellington, he issued a decree on the 4th of June, 1814, announcing to the Spanish Americans, his arrival in his kingdom, ordering them to lay down their arms, and promising

promising oblivion of the past ; to enforce this mandate, he also sent General Morillo from Cadiz with a well equipped army of 10,000 men. This army landed on the coast of Caraccas in April, 1815 ; but the insurgents not paying attention to his Majesty's commands, the general immediately commenced active measures. From Campano, where he landed, he proceeded to Margarita, from thence to Caraccas, and in the following August he besieged Carthagena.

Previous to his arrival, Boves, a Spaniard by birth, but a person of low rank, collected a handful of men, attached to the royal cause, and although destitute of assistance from the Spaniards, who were besieged in Puerto Cabello, he found means to raise a large body of troops in the interior, and seeking the insurgent army commanded by Bolivar, he fought several battles with them, in all of which his band was victorious, so that he was enabled to overthrow the new government established at Caraccas.

This valiant individual, following the career he had so fortunately begun, dispersed the army of the Independents in every direction, but was killed in storming their last strong-hold, at the moment of victory.

On the arrival of General Morillo he found the province free from the independent troops, and therefore commenced his march for Carthagena, joined by the natives of the country who had formed the army of Boves, and who assisted him materially in taking Carthagena, and re-conquering the revolted provinces of New Granada.

Castello and Bolivar were at this time the leaders of the independent forces in this country, but dissensions occurring between them, Carthagena was supplied with only 2000 troops ; the siege lasted from August to the 5th of December, 1815, when the governor and garrison evacuated the place, and the royal army took possession of it, but 3000 persons perished through famine during this siege.

General Morillo now advanced through the provinces of New Granada to the city of Santa Fé de Bogota, which place he entered in June, 1816, remaining in it till the following November : during his stay the leaders of the insurgents, and all who had been criminally engaged, were imprisoned, shot or exiled. From this period Bolivar, who had gone to Jamaica, turned his attention again towards Venezuela, planned an expedition to assist the people of Margarita, and joining Borion, an affluent native of Curaçoa, assembled the emigrants from Venezuela, and part of the garrison which had evacuated Carthagena.

Borion was appointed commander of the naval forces, and sailing from Aux-Cayes they landed in the beginning of May, 1816, at La Margarita.

From this island Bolivar proceeded to Campano, five leagues west of the city of Cumana, of which he dispossessed the royal forces, and having armed many light troops who joined him, again embarked and proceeded to Ocumare ; landing at this port he issued a proclamation, enfranchising all slaves, but was soon afterwards

wards defeated by the royalists in a severe and hard fought action, after which he retired to Aux-Cayes, from whence he again brought new reinforcements in December, 1816, to Margarita. On this island he published another proclamation, convoking the representatives of Venezuela to a general congress, and went afterwards to Barcelona, where he organised a provisional government.

' At this place he repulsed the royalists under Generals Real and Morales, with great loss, but in the month following, on the 7th of April, 1817, the city of Barcelona was taken by the Spanish troops, and Morillo received an addition of 1600 men from Spain, in the month of May; since this period the actions between the Spanish troops and the insurgents have been frequent; the congress of Venezuela has been established by Bolivar, and again overthrown by Morillo; the islanders of Margarita have repulsed the Spanish forces, and at this moment the army of the Independents is concentrated near the shores of the Orinoco, and the Spanish troops are in possession of the capital and all the principal towns.

' While these events were going on in Caraccas, the congress of Buenos Ayres declared its independence. The town of Monte Video was taken possession of by the Portuguese, and the march of insurrection spread itself into the remote government of Chili. Mina, who had been concerned in the Caraccas revolution, undertook an expedition against New Spain, in which, after sometimes repulsing, and at others being repulsed, by the Spanish generals, he was at last taken prisoner and beheaded at Mexico.

' The United States have ejected the adventurers who had established themselves on Amelia Island in the government of East Florida, and it appears that the revolutionary cause is only successful in Buenos Ayres and Venezuela, in both which provinces, it cannot however be said to be established, as a large Spanish army occupies part of one, and the Portuguese troops have partial possession of the other. In New Granada, Florida, Quito, Peru, and Mexico, the insurgents have very little sway, and in the islands of Puerto Rico and Cuba they are unknown; consequently the colonies of Spain, so far from being wrested from her, are still under her dominion; and it appears extremely probable that they will remain so.'

If the court of Spain should determine on embarking for Mexico, and, like the court of Portugal, transplant into the new world the seat of government, it is probable that the allegiance of Mexico, Peru, and perhaps of the Caraccas, might be consolidated round this new centre of administration: but we apprehend that the situation of Buenos Ayres and Chili is too remote to feel any longer the attraction of a metropolis north of the equator, and that these provinces in conjunction will persist in forming a separate royalty, or viceroyalty; the real object of the contest being to have a resident authority, intrusted with the supreme power over the country.

ART. VIII. *Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered*, an Heroic Poem. With Notes and occasional Illustrations. Translated by the Reverend J. H. Hunt, A. M. late Fellow of Trinity-College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 10s. Boards. Mawman. 1813.

PERHAPS the reason, which will explain the fact that good poetry has always been so popular among nations, is that no exercise of the mind is so agreeable to us as that of the imagination. That this faculty is likewise the characteristic badge of a true poet, none who have read Shakspeare can deny; and that the superior interest which we take in *his* productions, compared with others, arises from that source, is equally certain. It would appear as if, from the imperfect order and distribution of things here, and from the sketch of hopes and happiness that is so lightly traced out, we endeavoured to create a world of a more pleasing nature, to animate it with beings of a more perfect order, and to award the decrees of fancy in a manner more consonant to our feelings than those of fate; and, by thus sometimes indulging our minds in the contemplation of the more noble and beautiful images of creation, given to us by our first poets, we perhaps more truly relieve our feelings, and oppose the disagreeable events of life more successfully, than by the exertion of our courage or our resignation.

We cannot consider these remarks as foreign to the subject before us, viz. the celebrated poem of Torquato Tasso: a work which breathes such a spirit of enthusiasm, such wild beauties, and such genuine poetry, that in its way it has seldom been equalled and never surpassed. It would seem as if Apollo had given to him the exhortation of Horace:

*"Tu nihil invitâ dices, facies ne, Minervâ.
Id tibi judicium est: ea mens."*

There is something so reviving to the spirit in being thus reminded by Mr. Hunt of the youthful hours which we once spent with Tasso and Virgil, in a delightful part of the country, that we even thank him for calling us to a third translation; and we trust that we shall be forgiven if, before we enter on the more dry and critical part of our duty, we allot a few pleasanter moments to poetry and Tasso. A poet by nature, like Pope,

"He lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came;"

and, like Pope, he had not only to contend with the envious dunces of his time, but, which was worse, they were all gathered together under the formidable name of "La Crusca."

Would

Would that, like Pope also, he had been a satirist, that their names might have escaped oblivion! but perhaps he had his revenge still more effectually in suffering them to be forgotten. It is to be regretted that he was not as fortunate in his life as our English bard: but, being the native of a country divided into petty states and rival republics, which often invited its more powerful neighbours to its own subjection, he was early the victim of political dissension, and involved in misfortunes that, in one shape or another, attended him to the tomb. In addition to being deprived of his family-possession, and thus obliged to bow his noble spirit at the shrine of patronage, it is said that he was so unhappy as to become attached to the sister of the haughty Duke of Ferrara, who shut him up in a dungeon for exercising the use of his eyes and judgment, instead of taking it for a compliment, as he ought to have done. It always struck us that Tasso alluded to the cruelty both of the brother and the sister, in the beautiful and moving appeal of Armida to his hero; which possesses an intenseness of feeling, and an individual force of manner, that bespeak preconceived sensations. For the sake of our accomplished readers, we shall here quote the Italian, and give Mr. Hunt's and Mr. Hoole's translations for the purpose of comparison. In Canto iv. stanza 70. Armida says,

" *Misera ! ed à qual' altra il ciel prescrisse
Vita mai grave, ed immutabil tanto ?
Chè si cangia in altrui mente e natura,
Pria che si cangia in me sorte si dura.*

71.

" *Nulla speme più resta : invan mi doglio :
Non han più forza in uman petto i preghi.
Forse lece spenar che'l mio cordoglio
Che te non mosse, il reo Tiranno pieghi ?
Nè già te d'inclemenza accusar voglio,
Perchè 'l picciol soccorso a me si neghi :
Ma il cielo accuso, onde il mio mal discende,
Che in te pietade inesorabil rende.*

72.

" *Non tu, Signor, nè tua bontade è tale ;
Ma'l mio destino è che mi nega aita :
Crudo destino, empio destin fatale,
Occidi omai questa odiosa vita.
L' avermi priva, oimè, fu' picciol male
De' dolci padri in loro età fiorita ;
Se non mi vedi ancor, del regno priva,
Qual vittima al coltello andar cattiva.*

Mr. Hoole's version :

" Ah wretch! did ever Heaven on *one* bestow
A life so fix'd in never-ending woe?
That others e'en their nature shall forget.
Ere I subdue the rigour of my fate!
Why should I weep, since hopes no more remain,
And prayers assail the human breast in vain?
Or will my savage foe his ears incline
To prayers that fail to move a breast like thine?
Yet think not that my words *thy heart* accuse
Whose firm resolves so small an aid refuse.
Heav'n I accuse, from thence my sorrows flow :
Heav'n steels thy heart against a virgin's woe!
Not thou, O chief! but fate this aid denies!
Then let me view no more the hated skies.
Was't not enough to lose, relentless doom!
My tender parents in their early bloom?
But exile'd must I lead a wandering life,
Or fall a victim to the murderer's knife." Hoole.

Let us now attend to Mr. Hunt :

• Alas! to whom but me, has Heaven assign'd
A lot so hard! that first man's stedfast mind
Must change its temper, and new forms assume,
Ere change one tittle of my hapless doom —
Nature, and nature's laws may be forgot,
But my relentless fate must alter not.
No hope is left; in vain my prayers I pour,
For pray'rs can soften human breasts no more.
Or must I hope th' oppressor still may be
Alive to sorrows that are lost on thee?
Nor yet e'en now thy cruelty I blame,
That thus withholds the feeble aid I claim;
Heav'n I accuse; from Heaven my sorrows flow,
That makes thee callous to Armida's woe.
Not thou — all good and gen'rous as thou art;
My cruel fate transforms to stone thy heart:
Ah! doom implacable! ah! barb'rous fate!
Then take my life, the object now of hate.
Slight was the loss, that in life's blooming morn,
My much-lov'd parents from my arms were torn;
But must I wander in a foreign land,
Or, helpless victim, wait the slaught'rer's hand.'

This, however, is not a favourable specimen of the translator's powers, and we quote it merely for the reason mentioned. Neither of them has done justice to Tasso, and Mr. Hunt has occasionally inserted a line which too much resembles those of Hoole.

Tasso

Tasso was born amid that constellation of genius which shone on the revival of learning; and in that æra of poetry when it appears in every nation to have arrived at a high degree of excellence, by adding to the rudeness and strength of its first promoters (such as Dante and Chaucer, in their respective countries,) all that grace and classical language which are the work of time, and conspicuous in the Augustan, the Medicean, and our age of Queen Anne. Although many illustrious writers were his cotemporaries, both in his own and other nations, Tasso united in himself such varied powers as a poet, that he may be fairly deemed the first of the heaven-favoured few. Not even Camoens in his *Lusiad*, far less Lope de Vega and the tribe of Spanish and French epic and romance writers, can be compared to him in his *Jerusalem*, in his *Rinaldo*, or in "*Le sette Giornate*." As a poet, he united the rare combination of a powerful memory with the strongest imagination; and a grandeur of sentiment with a delicacy of thought and feeling, that enabled him to excel equally in the loftiness of the epic or in the simplicity and sweetness of the pastoral. In the *grove* he was like a dove, but over the field of battle he soared like an eagle. The commencement of his *Aminta*, for instance, is a proof of the former. We give a few of the opening lines as a specimen. It is a dialogue between two fair shepherdesses:

‘ DAFNE.

‘ And would'st thou wish, ah! simple that thou art,
To shun the joys that bless a loving heart,
Belov'd again? And wilt thou waste thy youth
A stranger to those names of love and truth?
Nor hear thee mother call'd, as round thee throng
The pledges of thy choice: nor from the tongue
Of one most dear, receive love's dearest name?
Fool that thou art to feel not his soft flame.

‘ SILVIA.

‘ Let others follow the vain hopes of love,
And if he boasts his pleasures let them prove!
Another joy is mine — and mine the care
To track the woods, and breath the forest air;
To wing my arrows at the chafing boar,
And win the prey I seek! I ask no more.

‘ DAFNE.

‘ Poor idle sports! if charms in these you find,
'Tis plain that love hath never blest your mind.’

We

We merely intend to give an idea of the varied powers of Tasso's lyre; and now let us listen to his voice in the storm :

" While in heaven the bands
Of thunder-spirits clap their hands ;"

or amid his own enchantments, on the beauties of the earth, or the terrors of the Tartarean deep. Even Milton heard the sound, and strung his lyre anew with emulating vigor. The fourth book begins in a style of demoniac splendor :

*" Chiama gli abitator dell'ombre eterne
Il rauco suon della Tartarea tromba ;
Tremar le spaziose atre caverne,
E l'aer cieco a quel romor rimbomba.
Ne sì stridendo mai dalle superne
Regioni del cielo il folgor piomba ;
Ne sì scossa giammai trema la terra,
Quando i vapori in sen gravida serra."*

We would gladly quote the succeeding stanzas, but we must ask Mr. Hunt to convey them for us, and hope for the best, as strong expression is rather his forte.

Th' infernal trump, that loud and hoarsely bray'd,
Conven'd the inmates of th' eternal shade :
Hell's gloomy caverns shook at every pore ;
The murky air return'd the sullen roar :
Not half so loud, from upper regions driv'n,
Bursts on th' affrighted world the bolt of heaven ;
Nor such the shock, when from earth's womb profound
Exploding vapours rive the solid ground.
And soon the gods of hell, an horrid throng,
Obedient to the summons haste along.
Around the palace's aspiring gate
In gath'ring crowds the dire assembly wait :
And oh ! what strange, what fearful forms were there !
What death, what terror in their eye-balls glare !
Some stamp'd with brutal hoofs the burning ground,
And shew'd an human head, with serpents crown'd ;
And, as their monstrous tails behind them roll'd,
Lash'd the redundant lengths, and twin'd in many a fold."

We cannot here forget the line of Pope,

" That like a wounded snake drags its slow length along :"

but we wish that Mr. Hunt had imitated any feature of Pope or Dryden except their triplets and Alexandrines. Did the translator observe the quotation which he makes of Bonaparte's saying, "*Du sublime au ridicule il n'y a qu'un pas?*" It would have been better for both the one and the other had they attended to its meaning ; for the fault has been the same

with both, of trying to do too much. — We give one more instance of Tasso's sublime, in the arming of Argantes, first in his own words. In the seventh book, when the hero is armed, he says,

*“ Qual con le chiome sangirinese orrende
Splender cometa suol per l'aria adusta,
Che i regni muta, i feeri morbi adduce,
E ai purpurei Tiranni infausta luce.”*

Mr. Hunt's translation :

‘ As when, high-flaming thro’ the parched air,
A blood-red comet shakes his horrid hair,
And threatens to despairing man below
Disease and battle, pestilence and woe;
States see their doom portended by his rays,
And purple tyrants tremble as they gaze;
So shone Argantes arm’d, — a living fire,
And roll’d his blood-shot eye-balls, drunk with ire.
In ev’ry gesture deadly horrors breathe;
Death sat enthron’d his withering scowl beneath.’

All this is rather alarming; a little *too* fiery; ‘a living fire,’ as he expresses it; though they are good lines. Let us see what Mr. Hoole says, and we shall find that he rhymes just the same :

“ As shaking terrors from his blazing hair,
A sanguine comet gleams thro’ dusky air,
To ruin states and dire diseases spread,
And baleful light on purple tyrants shed,
So flam’d the chief in arms, and sparkling ire
He roll’d his eyes suffus’d with blood and fire:
His dreadful threats the firmest hearts control’d,
And with a look he withered all the bold:—
With horrid shout he shook his naked blade,
And smote th’ impassive air, and empty shade.”

Though it is natural that a similitude should occur, we here discern too much resemblance in rhyme and context. To our taste, however, Mr. Hoole is superior, but our readers can judge for themselves. We have quoted enough to substantiate Tasso's claim to sublimity: let us next see him in his garden :

‘ When thro’ the laby’rinth they had made their way,
Before their eyes the lovely garden lay.
Still lakes of silver, streams that murmur’ing crept,
Hills on whose sloping brow the sun-beams slept,
Luxuriant trees, that various forms display’d,
And vallies grateful with refreshing shade.’ *Hunt.*

“ The

" The garden then unfolds a beauteous scene,
With flow'rs adorn'd, and ever-living green.
There glassy lakes reflect the beamy day;
Here crystal streams in gurgling fountains play:
Cool vales descend, and sunny hills arise,
And groves, and caves, and grottos strike the eyes."

Hoole.

Even from this slight sketch we may perceive that nature and the heavens were newly animated by the genius of Tasso, and Milton deemed it not unworthy of him to follow his Italian brother in the beauty of his descriptions. That passionate mingling of feelings with all around him, and with the beings of his imagination, (the true stamp of a poet, by which we may always know him,) Tasso certainly possessed. A vivid fancy is always fertile in images; and it is, perhaps, this which gives the powerful charm of expression, distinction, and variety to his characters, in common with Shakspeare and Homer. He sustained the varied parts of the epic with uniform dignity, clearness of drawing, fine delineation of character, copiousness of incident, and an allegorical and masterly conduct of the fable. If he has errors, they are the errors also of Shakspeare, and arose from the same cause; viz. having given way to the false taste of the age in which he wrote. Tasso had too correct an intellect not to perceive the folly of that love of "*concetti*" and the marvellous, which he was constrained in a degree to follow: he had an elevation of soul that would have inserted nothing unworthy of the epic; and he appears to verify the observation of Aristotle: "*Οἱ μὲν γὰρ σεμνότεροι, τὰς καλὰς ἐμιμῶντο πράξεις, καὶ τὰς τῶν τοιούτων τυχάς.*" His heroes are all finely conceived, and distinct. A poet of inferior imagination will always draw the same character, and must be supported by real scenes and incidents, which he may paint with an egotism and energy of feeling, but with no variety of sentiment and feature. Such must not attempt the dramatic form of poetry. Those who possess the gift of imagination, like Tasso, will always interest us in a much higher degree, than the mere exhibition of strong feelings with the same character repeated can be expected to do. Strength and grandeur of imagination will atone for many faults; and no philosophy, no inferiority of talent, will ever persuade us to give up its pleasures, while the human heart is constituted as it is. As the late celebrated Madame de Staël observed; "It were useless to answer such reasoners; the best proof of the weakness of their argument is that of yielding to its influence." Until we cease to be interested in what concerns us, those who possess the power of moving

our passions will never renounce their hopes of success and reputation in effecting it. The greatest portion of fame certainly belongs to those who first discovered useful truths: but have not those also employed themselves honourably, and well for mankind, who found the way through our passions at once to improve and delight us? Virtue alone is positive: but happiness is so vaguely pointed out, and of so slight a texture, that the wish to analyse it is to destroy it, like the brilliant dew-drops of the flower that disappear as we touch it. Indeed, the concerns of the heart will always baffle the eye of the metaphysician: they are too valuable and scarce, and we are too happy to feel them, to think of minutely examining of what stuff they are woven. If this poetical imagination reposed only on itself, without influencing the disposition and the feelings, it would be worth little: but it is really the handmaid of reason; and, by disguising her truths in the dress of fiction, we are instructed, as it were, without knowing it. Thus it is that an address to the passions has so much more efficacy than a dry appeal to the reason of mankind; and, if we prove it to be their real pleasure rather than their duty to do well, they will more readily obey. It is thus also that the poetry which exhibits scenes from life, either as they are or as they ought to be, and is coloured like that of Tasso with eloquence of language, strength of feeling, and richness of imagery, united to a moral fable, is of all other species the most interesting and valuable to man. Whatever may be said against allegories, or whether a poem ever was or should be written with such a view, it is certainly no good and perfect epic poem from which a sort of allegory cannot be drawn; and, though we do not appear to trace the progress of an allegory in reading, yet the moral tendency and the picture of life which it exhibits, combined with an adaptation of parts to the whole, are the cause that renders it charming to our minds. That Tasso wrote his *Jerusalem* in order to give an epitome of life, with its duties, troubles, and passions, as he himself says, we do not altogether believe: but that he really held the object in view, and intended to shew the final reward of virtue, constancy, and piety, in his hero, (Godfrey,) we think is very probable; and that, at last, like many learned commentators, he deduced from his own poem the ingenious explanation which he prefixes, and perhaps discovered more in it than he at first expected. The fact is, that the allegory is in the nature of the thing itself, and the finer the poem the more correct it will be found: indeed, an epic without it would be nonsense. We mention it merely as a proof of the beauty and perfection of Tasso's epic,

epic, that it is surprizingly well kept up, which any one who will take the trouble of attentively considering it from first to last will find to be the case. How plainly does he exemplify the actions of man; in the struggle of reason with passion in the stoical resistance of Godfrey to the charming Armida; and in the rein that Rinaldo gives to his desires in leaving the glory of which he was so proud. In Clorinda dying by Tancred's hand, it appears he would shew that we are the authors of our own misfortunes when we least suspect it; and Armida is made to weave the net in which she was herself caught. To preserve this sort of truth of life in personification, a genius of the very first order is required; the "*Mens divinior*," the "*Os magna sonaturum*," are here indispensably necessary; united with a capacity and profundity of mind which are seldom to be found.

This personification of the powers and the passions of our nature, which is the soul of all poetry, is extremely natural and agreeable to the feelings; and, after this, the introduction of superior powers, as machinery to carry on the grand business of the drama, was easily added. At the same time; the first good inventor of the system on a large scale, like that of Homer, undoubtedly possesses the advantage, as well as the honour, in a much higher degree than any who succeed him; since he leaves them little to find out except the means of happily imitating him. Such an art of animating the abstract qualities and actions of man, united with superior powers, when well employed, can make the earth, the heavens, and even hell subservient to its purposes. The divine part of it, however, when too freely exerted, is apt to destroy the probability and simplicity of the story, the interest in its progress, and even its moral justness, by the partiality of its decrees, the anticipation of events, and its unnecessary intervention. Even the first of our poets have found it difficult to handle the arms of Heaven. Milton has, perhaps, succeeded best on the whole: but, in the antient epic, the gods and goddesses evidently spoil the pleasure of the story in many places. It was rather tantalizing that the hero's spear should so often be turned aside by his enemy's good genius; and, had he always known it, he might have assigned as valid a reason for declining to fight as we now have for declining to read as much as we otherwise might. As far as we lose sight of man, and the free agency of his actions, things become indifferent if not ridiculous to us; and all the gods of the heathen mythology are interesting only as glorious or as dark views of man and nature. We do not think that Tasso has transgressed the bounds of moderation in employing heavenly machinery

machinery so much as many others: but, if he had left a little more to the chance of war, it would have been as well; particularly where he makes the Sultan Solymán, a brave soldier, not even, like Hector, dare to run away, but stand in such a fright that he suffers Rinaldo to cut him down without saying a word.

If we compare Tasso with other poets of his age, — an age that was rich in authors of the first genius, — we shall find none who united in himself so many great qualities. Although in genius Ariosto was fully equal to him in some points, and he had more nature and wildness of imagination, yet he never reached and supported himself at the same point which Tasso attained; and, on this account, his *Orlando* is too irregular to be compared to the *Jerusalem Delivered*. To consider him with respect to poets of other nations, as Camoens, Lope de Vega, Milton, or Voltaire, in the epic, would lead us too far.

It is singular that Italian literature has but lately taken that rank in the estimation of our countrymen which it deserves to possess; and it would appear that even our early writers were more acquainted with it than we have since been. Many of Chaucer's tales are of Provençal or Italian growth; and that Shakspeare must have understood the language of the country in which so many of his scenes were laid, as many passages may be brought to evince. Spenser was a great admirer and imitator of Italian; and Milton warmed his genius at the holy shrine of Tasso's *Creation* and his *Jerusalem*. We have had comparatively few translations from the Italian, until the present day: but, since the language became more read and admired, translations, as usual, have abounded. Yet it is not to them that the praise is owing of having revived the taste for its literature in this country, but to those whose talents and labours first opened the buried treasures of the Roman and Florentine libraries; who presented us with the works and lives of the most illustrious revivers of modern literature and the arts; and who made known, even to the Italians themselves, the superior character and real history of their first statesmen and scholars. The French were earlier and better acquainted with their poets than we were: but the genius and language of the two nations were so very dissimilar, that the comparative weakness and monotony of the one could never assimilate with the spirit and energy of the other; and thus we find even Voltaire perpetually snarling at that freedom and strength of their poetry which he could never attain. We trust, however, that it has met with a better reception in the minds of our more liberal countrymen; whose long line of hereditary genius can well afford to praise the first men of any nation, without

without derogating from its own fame; and surely the fulness and energy of our own language are well adapted to convey the conceptions of the successors of Virgil, Horace, and Juvenal. Of the same compound nature, produced by the mixture of an old tongue with that of the invaders, it is rich in epithets and compounds, free and energetic in its powers, and capable of expressing the most variable emotions. The character of England, too, is in many respects like that of the Romans; strong and vivid in its poets, patient and powerful in its philosophers, acute in logic and criticism, unequalled in war, and without any marked national excellence in the arts, compared with that of other nations. If we do not mistake, Hume has somewhere alluded to this circumstance. Now the genius and language of such a people are well formed for the production and conveyance of elevated feelings through all the passions; and we thus find that poetry not only arrives at superior excellence among them, but is then keenly relished by its readers.

We must, however, return to Mr. Hunt; and let him not be angry when we state our opinion that Tasso would have appeared more natural, and walked easier, if his new clothes had not been made quite so strait for him. Mr. H. certainly did not well take his measure, for in some parts the dress is too long, and in others too short, and he should have observed a little more of the cut and fashion of the country for which he formed it. We must, however, do him justice: he certainly has powers; and, far from betraying feebleness, his fault consists in doing too much. He is too faithful. Indeed, the poem and the translator are a second "*Aeneas et fidus Achates*:" except that, when his master *speaks*, he *shouts* in return; when one *roars*, the other *thunders*; and when the poet *thunders*, the translator *runs mad*. As he himself expresses it:

'He shouts with voice so hateful and malign,

He seems to burst the gate of Janus' secret shrine;

so that

'Hell's gloomy caverns shook at every pore!'

This is personifying Hell with a vengeance. The pores of Hell! If he had said *sweat*, it would have been more natural, if not more elegant: "Hell's gloomy caverns *sweat* at every pore." We perceive numerous little errors of this sort; too many mistakes to be assigned altogether to the account of the press; and some grammatical inaccuracies: as, in his sketch of the life of Tasso: 'the advancing years of such rarely corresponds.' We should scarcely, perhaps,

have made these remarks, had he not been as free and particular with regard to Fairfax and Hoole: but Mr. Hunt really has not done justice to himself in the care and revision of his work, while he was scrutinizing those of his predecessors. He should have taken a positive ground of his own, without any reference to them; and he would not then, by shunning their faults, have run into the opposite extremes of being too literal and too long. As to his superior claim to merit on the score of fidelity, we are happy to say, after having carefully compared his work with the original, that we cannot charge him, as he accuses Hoole and Fairfax, with ignorance of Italian, and mis-representation of the author. If Fairfax added a little of his own poetry, which is very good, and Hoole gave somewhat less than the poetry of Tasso, Mr. Hunt has extended him in some places to a most unconscionable length. Indeed, our translators have borne rather hardly on Tasso, and made him experience the inconveniences of the bed of Procrustes, some by cutting him shorter, and others by stretching him out. This, however, will not do! Tasso, as we understand him, is neither too long nor too short, but of a very gentlemanly height, and we do not see why his effigy should be given either in dwarfish or in gigantic features. He must himself be a tolerably fair poet who would translate a poet like Tasso; and until some genius rises up among us similar to his own, we must not expect an unexceptionable version. It is not here that critical skill, or even a knowledge of the genius of languages, will avail so much as poetic talent, united to a fine taste in those nicer expressions of thought and language, which, like the light and shade in a picture, serve to exhibit the whole to advantage. The difficulty is to catch the tone and spirit of the original; and he who is not a painter might as well sit down to copy a picture from Michael Angelo, as a scholar who is not a poet endeavour to tell us what Tasso sang. The utmost fidelity of copying in both cases will be of no use; and the result would necessarily be an unmeaning and disagreeable picture, either to the corporeal or the mind's eye.

It is improper, also, for a translator to be constantly aiming at something grand, since he thus becomes unintelligible and often absurd. Occasional instances of this fault are discoverable in the present translation: which we regret the more because, with the exception of particular *incuriæ*, and the general objection of being too long, it is very spirited, manifesting great strength and freedom of thought as well as of language, and is altogether an honourable testimony to Mr. H.'s talents. It is surely enough to preserve the story,

with the ideas and images of the original, without keeping up exactly to the force or the weakness of all the figures; which may be softened down or heightened, according to the genius of the language in which the translation is written. We allow that in languages like the Greek, Latin, or even the Italian, this sort of fidelity to the original will give more strength and spirit to the expressions of the translator: but, without the greatest judgment, it will lead him into violations of sentiments and common sense. It would seem as if Mr. H. had formed a high opinion of the duty of rendering an original *faithfully*; and that, from the supposition of the want of fidelity in his predecessors, rather than of any poetic failing, he himself undertook a work of no light nature. At least, this motive is better than that of *idleness*; which he himself assigns, and which can by no means be deemed a proper incentive to the writing of an epic poem.

Beyond a doubt, it is more justifiable to compress or even omit some of the more objectionable passages, (as a little conceit of expression and idea, or an over-wrought figure,) than to preserve and even dwell on them, and add considerably to the sufficient fulness and detail of the original. Some of Tasso's stanzas are rendered by Mr. H. in twelve or fourteen lines; and in some cantos he has a hundred lines more than the original. In a long epic poem of twenty books, this excess is rather offensive, and particularly in the case of Tasso; who has left nothing unfinished, but rather leans towards too much ornament of characters. He does not possess that strength of sketch which marks them with a single word or action, as in Homer. He is the Raphael of poetry, and Homer the Michael Angelo. His colouring is always bright and beautiful, and needs no additional touches: as we see with a superior effect in his enchantments, in the gardens of Armida, and in the wanderings of Herminia; and his decorations of the whole story are superb. Yet Rinaldo, after all, has not the limbs of Achilles, though he fights in his armour; and Armida has not that silent fascination, and that interest of appearance without the exertion of art, which the Grecian Helen possessed. Hence it is evident that a translator from Tasso must feel the genius of his author, and know when to pull in, as well as when to give the reins to his abundant vigour and vivacity of imagination. If the compounded energy and strength of the Greek can be expressed by the Latin in the same number of lines, as even Clarke in his Homer has evinced, how much more should a forcible language like ours explain the Italian in the same manner: a tongue that owes its sweetness and beauty to the
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preservation of the fulness of its vowels and articles, with little comparative curtailment. We are concerned, then, to see that, while we have three or more translations of Tasso's immortal poem, the poetical reader, and the man of critical skill and judgment, cannot agree in admiring any. Although Fairfax is full of poetry, he is occasionally too free both in omitting the original and in giving way to his own muse. Yet we by no means agree with Mr. Hunt that this is such a capital offence in the court of Phœbus; for, if there be any statute-law with regard to poetry, it is the injunction to please, and through that medium to inform the mind. This effect is much better attained by translating like Fairfax, without the rigid regard to fidelity which it is sufficient to observe in affairs of life, but which should not be introduced into the regions of poetry and taste; particularly into translations which are made to be read, as well as to convey to us every turn of expression in the original. Mr. Hoole is perhaps deficient on the other side, in not being poetic enough for his author, and in many places too careless: but he manifests great simplicity and beauty in the descriptions. As Mr. Hunt had the advantage of studying two predecessors, we sincerely wish that he had avoided their faults without laying himself open to the charge of more important errors. Had he kept within the bounds of good taste, instead of hazarding epithets which he says Dryden and Pope ventured not to use, we should not have to blame him so often for making too free with rhyme and meaning. Why did he not aim at catching some of their excellences, such as Dryden's quiet majesty, and Pope's smoothness of verse, instead of going beyond them in such expressions as *harnessed youth*, for soldiers, and *iron heart* and *iron sleep*? He reminds us of Gortz, the man with the iron hand, who could use it to no good purpose but that of knocking down his enemies in war: for Mr. H. has an iron pen, with which he occasionally makes severe strokes against good sense and probability. If he had adhered to his simple and honest duty of softening down or raising the figures and language of his original, as the genius of his own required, we should have been better pleased than with all his quotations from Homer and Virgil, to put poor Tasso out of countenance, and sometimes without occasion. We are free to make these remarks, because we think that he could have given us a better work if he had allowed himself more time, and had polished and condensed it with some rigour. Indeed, by moderating the language and expressions, and the occasional violence of the figures, he might, in our opinion, have presented to us a correct and valuable

valuable translation: valuable, certainly, for its *ample fidelity*, for its learned comparison of passages in epic writers, and for the information contained in the notes.

Perhaps we have said enough with regard to Tasso, and have afforded sufficient samples of his translator's merits. At any rate, we cannot *now* pursue the subject farther; and we shall take breath to consider whether, in another Number, we ought to resume the consideration of these volumes.

ART. IX. *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*; or Universal Dictionary of Knowledge, on an original Plan. With appropriate Engravings. 4to. 11. 1s. each Part. Fenner.

ENCYCLOPÆDIAS have of late years so poured on us from all quarters, their plans have been so various, and their magnitude and prices so proportioned to the means of different classes of society, that we had little expectation of seeing another work of this kind, on a very extensive scale, soliciting the support and patronage of the public. It certainly must have required more than ordinary courage in the publisher and proprietors to risk so large a sum of money, as such an undertaking necessarily will demand to bring it into circulation; and very considerable talents and confidence in the editors, to attempt to give to such a performance a new and original form, challenging competition with other comprehensive and favourite productions of the same description.

Before we examine the merits of the plan and arrangement proposed to be followed in this new Dictionary, we must furnish our readers with an abstract of them. In the first place, then, we learn that it is to consist of twenty-five volumes, and to be divided into four distinct parts; viz. Pure Sciences, two volumes; Mixed and applied Sciences, six volumes; Biography and History, eight volumes; Miscellaneous and Lexicographical, eight volumes; and one volume to contain a general index of the whole. These principal divisions are again subdivided into the several treatises of which they are respectively composed: but their particular order will be best seen by an extract from the prospectus accompanying the first part;

‘ FIRST DIVISION.

‘ Universal Grammar and Philology: or the Forms of Languages.

‘ Logic, particular and universal: or the Forms of Conceptions and their Combinations.

‘ Mathematics: (Geometry, Arithmetic, Algebra, &c.) or the Forms and Constructions of Figure and Number.

‘ Meta-

‘ **Metaphysics** : or the Universal Principles and Conditions of Experience, having for its object the Reality of our speculative Knowledge in general.

‘ **Morals** : or the Principles and Conditions of the Coincidence of the Individual Will with the Universal Reason, having for its object the Reality of our practical Knowledge.

‘ **Theology** : or the Union of both in their application to God, the Supreme Reality.

‘ **SECOND DIVISION.**

- ‘ **Mechanics.**
- ‘ **Hydrostatics.**
- ‘ **Pneumatics.**
- ‘ **Optics.**
- ‘ **Astronomy.**

1. EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY.	{	Magnetism.
		Electricity, including Galvanism.
		Chemistry.
		Light.
		Heat.
2. THE FINE ARTS.	{	Colour.
		Meteorology.
		Poetry, introduced by Psychology.
		Painting.
		Music.
3. THE USEFUL ARTS.	{	Sculpture.
		Architecture.
		Agriculture, introduced by Political Economy.
		Commerce.
		Manufactures.
4. NATURAL HISTORY.	{	Introduced by Physiology in its widest sense.
		Inanimate : — Chrystallography, Geology, Mineralogy.
		Insentient : — Phytonomy, Botany.
		Animate : — Zoology.
5. APPLICATION OF NATURAL HISTORY.	{	Anatomy.
		Surgery.
		Materia Medica.
		Pharmacy.
		Medicine.

‘ **THIRD DIVISION.**

‘ **Biography** **CHRONOLOGICALLY** arranged, interspersed with introductory Chapters of National History, Political Geography and Chronology, and accompanied with correspondent Maps and Charts. The far larger portion of **HISTORY** being thus conveyed not only in its most interesting, but in its most philosophical, because most natural and real form ; while the remaining and connecting facts are interwoven in the several preliminary chapters,

‘ **FOURTH**

‘ **FOURTH DIVISION.**

‘ Alphabetical, Miscellaneous, and Supplementary, containing a **GAZETTEER** or complete Vocabulary of Geography: and a Philosophical and Etymological **LEXICON** of the English Language, or the History of English Words; — the citations arranged according to the Age of the Works from which they are selected, yet with every attention to the independent beauty or value of the sentences chosen which is consistent with the higher ends of a clear insight into the original and acquired meaning of every word.’

Such is the order proposed for the arrangement of the several parts, and of each part, of the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. Let us now offer a few remarks on the advantages or disadvantages of it: in the course of which, we may perhaps find it necessary, by way of comparison, to direct our attention to other works of a similar kind, either completed or at present in progress: though we may not be disposed to judge of them quite so severely as the present editors have done, when in their prospectus they state that

‘ It may be safely asserted of all our Universal Dictionaries hitherto, that the chief difference between them, in respect of their *plan*, consists in the more or less complete disorganization of the Sciences and Systematic Arts: now retaining certain integral portions of the system as integers, forming each an entire treatise, but resigning these treatises to the places severally assigned to them by the accident of their initial letters; and now splintering all alike into their fractional parts, with an arrangement merely alphabetical. Nor has the imperfection rested here. This very alphabetical position was but too frequently determined by the caprice or convenience of the compiler; inasmuch as the division of parts into minor parts had no settled limit. Thus, one technical or scientific term included as its subordinates, and to be explained in the same article, sometimes more, sometimes fewer, other terms: and the arrangement became neither properly scientific, nor properly alphabetical. It had the inconveniencies of both, without the advantages of either.’

That much truth is contained in these remarks we will not deny: but we would have the editors remember that it is far easier to see the defects of others than to prevent similar failings in our own case. *Their* plan, at present, is only laid, not executed; it will still require considerable talents and judgment to carry it into complete effect: they have studied, apparently with great attention, the faults of similar performances; and we have yet to see how they will avoid the rocks on which others have split.

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That the proposed arrangement is judicious, no one who has experienced the inconvenience of a classification wholly alphabetical will perhaps question: but that it will be free from all the imperfections which the editors enumerate, we certainly feel some doubt. Indeed, no plan could perhaps be projected that would obviate all the difficulties attending the arrangement of such a multitude of articles, and embracing every principle of human knowledge; articles in some cases very widely different, and in others so intimately connected that it is almost impossible to draw between them the line of separation. We are inclined to think, however, that no one could be better conceived for obviating these impediments than that which is before us: but we cannot enter into its merits at any great length, because we should wish to offer a few remarks on the nature of the execution, as far as it can be judged from the parts that we have examined; and we must not extend this article to too great a length, although, looking on such a work as a matter of considerable public importance, we are desirous of giving as much scope to our report as is consistent with the limits of this review. The order of arrangement is of the more consequence in the scientific divisions: in the other parts, each separate article stands chiefly on its own ground, and is in a great measure independent of any other: it is therefore of less importance where its place is assigned, provided only that we know where to turn to it when a reference becomes necessary: but, even here, if, besides the mere purpose of a reference, the several detached articles can be so connected as to form a regular and digested source of information, it is certainly a material point gained; and, as far as the nature of the various subjects will admit, we think that it will be effected by the proposed arrangement of the third division.

The order, however, as we have already observed, is of far less moment here than in the scientific departments, where one subject is so connected with and dependent on another, that it is of the highest consequence that the order should be such that the several parts may be considered and treated as one connected whole; and the necessary defect in this point is one of the greatest objections to the general alphabetical arrangement. Still we must remark that it is one thing to form a plan and another to accomplish it; and in this case, as in most, the execution is by much the most difficult task, on the merits of which we cannot now offer a decided opinion: at least not respecting that part of it which we have here more particularly in view; viz. the proportionment and adjustment of the several articles to each other. If such a

work as this were to be published complete in the first instance, the plan would present far less difficulties, because, it would then only be necessary to have it perfect as a whole: but, when appearing in parts, it is not only requisite to have an eye to the conclusion, but to every part by itself; and so to arrange and combine the different articles, that they may be read with pleasure and advantage as the publication proceeds. It is the accomplishment of this object, as far as it can possibly be effected, that will constitute the peculiar advantages of the plan under consideration.

According to the arrangement more commonly adopted, it will frequently happen that a particular branch of science presents itself long before the fundamental principles on which it depends have been considered, and some years may elapse before they can find their place in the alphabet. Let us, for example, take *Air*, *Air-pump*, &c. as appertaining to Pneumatics; *Gunnery*, as a branch of Mechanics; *Amputation*, as a division of Surgery; *Aberration*, as belonging to the science of Optics, &c. &c.; and we shall immediately see the justness of the preceding observation. Now, according to the system here proposed, regular treatises on the various sciences will be given first; and such subjects, as appertain to them in the miscellaneous division, may therefore be referred immediately to the particular section and article, where the principles on which they depend have been already illustrated: consequently, the repeated and imperfect references, so much the object of complaint in other works of this kind, will be avoided.

It will be perceived that we consider the projected arrangement and subdivision as highly judicious: but we must repeat that it will call for particular care and foresight in the execution; and, though we have no reason to doubt that it will be carried into effect with attention and discrimination, we feel ourselves required to mention it here as a subject of great importance, and deserving of the most serious deliberation of the editors.

Having said thus much with respect to the plan, let us inquire into the merits of its execution as far as we can at present judge of it.

Passing over a rather florid and somewhat confused introduction, which in Part I. takes the place of the portion of the volume that is in future to be assigned to the Pure Sciences, we come to one of the principal divisions;—the Mixed and Applied Sciences; commencing, according to the order indicated in the prospectus, with a treatise of Mechanics. Though we have not room to enter much at length into an examin-

examination of this article, yet, as this division will form so conspicuous a part of the work itself, we must pay it some attention. The science of Practical Mechanics has in England, within the last half century, been carried to an extent never before attained in any age or state; and, perhaps, no other country is so favourably situated in all respects for the pursuit. A people naturally industrious and persevering; a government which gives free scope for the exercise of genius, in whatever sphere of life it may be found; a superabundant capital and unimpaired credit; mines possessing in themselves the two great agents of mechanical efficiency, coals and iron; an insular situation, with ports on every point of its shores; and inland canals to almost every line of its surface; are advantages which no other nation possesses in mass, and many of which it is impossible to create. These have been the means of carrying practical mechanics in England to unprecedented perfection: but, during all this time, little or no progress has been made in the theoretical department. In France, the case has been exactly reversed; there we find the theory pursued with a success equally astonishing, while the practical application, though not entirely neglected, has been suffered to remain nearly stationary during the same period.

Our books on mechanics are comparatively few; and, with the exception of one treatise by Dr. Gregory, in two vols., they have generally pursued the geometrical method of demonstration, and have limited their investigations to the most simple cases. To take one instance, in the doctrine of forces: it is obvious that, in order to consider this subject generally, we must suppose a body of any form isolated in space, with forces of various intensities acting in all possible directions; and then inquire into the result of their several actions, the direction of the consequent motion, or the conditions of their equilibrium. This case, involving so great a degree of generality, is not unfrequently seen, in our treatises of mechanics, reduced to the partial consideration of finding the resultant, or the condition of equilibrium of two or more forces acting on a given point, and in a given plane; which is obviously much too limited a view of the subject. At the same time, the general problem must be allowed to lead to a complication very difficult to unravel, and not less difficult to investigate. French authors, in this as in most other cases, are partial to the method of deducing the particular cases from the general one; while most English writers confine themselves wholly to particulars, and frequently leave the general problem untouched. We were anxious to see how the author
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of the present treatise managed this subject, because we fancied that we could thus divine the prominent character that this and the other subsequent and depending treatises would assume. On turning to this part, we find that he has, as we think very judiciously, adopted the intermediate course between these two extremes; neither limiting himself to the partial cases nor deducing them from the general one, but merely employing them as the means of arriving at the solution of the principal problem to which we have referred. To state our ideas a little more distinctly, we may observe that the above general problem may be naturally supposed to divide itself into the following particular cases:—the composition of two or more forces acting on a material point, in a plane, or in any direction; of forces acting on different parts of an inflexible line, either parallel to each other or inclined in any manner whatever in a given plane, or in any manner whatever in space; and ultimately, which is the problem in question, of forces acting on a free body of any form, and according to any given directions. Such is the division employed in the article before us, and which we deem very proper, particularly in a work of this description, designed for general reading. The descending from generals to particulars furnishes an opportunity for a great display of analytical transformations, shews the powers and beauties of analysis to the best advantage, and is, perhaps, the most pleasing to a mathematician who is prepared to enter on the investigation: but it is by no means so well calculated for a student, or a common reader, either of whom would in all probability be tired with a long and abstract investigation, before he could perceive how it was to be applied to any particular case.

We must now briefly advert to the other sections of this treatise. They relate to the equilibrium of flexible bodies, including a general investigation of the *catenary*; and the equilibrium of elastic bodies, or rather of elastic laminæ, the case of elastic planes not being introduced; an omission for which we cannot account, unless the writer has reserved it for the purpose of shewing the application of the theory of variations to this and others of the higher mechanical problems. The following sections treat of the laws of gravity, the centre of gravity, the centrobaryc method, the mechanical powers, and the general equilibrium of machines. This may be said to conclude the pure part of statics; and we are next introduced to those branches of the doctrine which rest on experimental data, prefaced by the ensuing observations:

‘ In establishing the first principles of the theory of Statics, we are under the necessity of considering lines without weight or thickness,

thickness, surfaces perfectly polished, cords perfectly flexible, axles and wheels divested of gravity and friction, &c.; circumstances which in no instance will obtain in the practical application of the doctrine of equilibrium to the several useful purposes of life; and it becomes therefore absolutely necessary, when we wish to employ our theory in actually computing the results of certain combinations of the machines whose properties we have been illustrating, and whose powers have been investigated upon suppositions which have no place in nature; to establish a due estimation of the several counteracting causes, in order that we may thence determine, not merely the theoretical but the actual practical powers and resistances which it is necessary to apply or to overcome. In other cases also, our investigations are intended to show, not the absolute powers and resistances, but their comparative value with regard to each other under various circumstances: as for example, in computing the relative strains upon solid bodies excited by the action of different forces under various conditions, and the proportional resistance which such bodies oppose to these several existing forces.

In these and other similar cases, it is impossible to state the absolute magnitude or intensity of either, without reference to experiment. We propose, therefore, in concluding the article *STATICS*, to enter upon this practical consideration of the subject, and to give a series of the most useful and valuable experiments, as far as they relate to the principles of this doctrine, in order that the reader may, at any time, by introducing them into his theoretical investigations, estimate correctly the practical efficiency of any proposed mechanical combination or construction.

The subjects here meant are friction, rigidity of ropes, resistance of solids, the strength of materials, the pressure of banks, and the thickness of revetments. Then follows a part of the treatise on *DYNAMICS*, which is continued in the succeeding part.

DIVISION III. HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

We naturally estimate the value of a general history by inquiring what sources the writer has consulted, and with what diligence his researches have been made; by his judgment in reconciling contradictory statements; and, finally, by the language in which the result of his studies is conveyed to the reader. In the present work, we have not the necessary criteria for judging on the former points; because both subjects, being treated chronologically, necessarily refer to very early events, for the particulars of which we must consult the Bible and the Bible only: we can therefore estimate merely the composition, which is certainly clear, intelligible, and harmonious. An extract will, however, give our readers an opportunity of judging for themselves: but we prefer a passage from the introductory chapter, rather than from the his-

tory, because it will serve the double purpose of exhibiting the style and the ideas of the author.

"History," says Cicero, "is the light of truth;" a noble expression, and one which reflects honour on the pure and upright mind of its author. On the clearness and steadiness of this light, depends its whole value, in guiding us through the obscure and difficult passages of life. We can reason but from what we know: and without truth, our fancied knowledge is worse than that ignorance of which we are aware, and which at least does not inspire us with a fatal confidence. It is manifest then, that an untrue History is no History at all, but a fable, so much the more pernicious because it assumes the garb of truth. The historian who misleads his readers, violates this first duty towards them. If he does it through carelessness and negligence, he is censurable in no light degree; but if he does it wilfully, he is a base and infamous impostor. Yet in human works we must not expect perfection. The truth of History derived from mere human authority must be imperfect. It is an impression difficult to shake off, in the reading of History, that we are perusing an exact account of events as they really happened, without exaggeration or diminution, without suppression or addition. A little reflection, however, will teach us that this can never be the case in a narrative of any length. Where is the impartial mind, untinctured by prejudice, which can see every fact in its true light? Where is the powerful grasp of knowledge which can embrace all the long and complicated details that go to the making up every action of importance? To every human mind some infirmity of passion or prejudice must cling: from all human knowledge some large deductions are to be made for the absolute impossibility of correcting error. Hence some writers have foolishly inferred that there is no truth in History; or at least, that its truth is greatly outweighed by its falsehood; that it is rather a source of error than of knowledge; and that there is no resource to the student but in a general scepticism. This practical absurdity is the necessary result of a philosophy aiming at more than it can accomplish. The abstract nature of truth is first delineated in just and pleasing colours, and then the abstraction is substituted for the reality: we are taught to expect what we can never obtain; and in our disappointment, like children deprived of the toys which they eagerly covet, we foolishly reject or undervalue the advantages in our power. This fault pervades the lectures on History, delivered by M. Volney, some years ago, in Paris. He sets out with an error in ranking History and natural philosophy alike among the sciences; and then, because the evidence of History is clearly different from that of natural philosophy, he infers that History is of far less importance, and of far less social and practical utility, than it had ever before been considered. Ancient writers would not have fallen into this error: they all term History an *art*, and not a *science*; and they would as little have thought of confounding the operations of the mind in matters of science, with those which re-

late to historical testimony; as of treating politics like a question of abstract reasoning, according to the method of Jean Jacques Rousseau. The truth of History is like the truth established on legal trials. It may not be positive, but with due care it is sufficient to enlighten the conscience, and to guide the conduct. How weakly would he argue, who should contend, that because judges and juries sometimes err, witnesses sometimes deceive, the innocent sometimes suffer, and the guilty sometimes escape; therefore the administration of the law is altogether an evil, and society would do better without it! Just as weak are the arguments directed against the utility of History, because its evidence is sometimes fallible. This is nothing more than the old sophistical form of argument, from the abuse of a thing, against its use. It is the general common-place of all those declamations against governments, and society in general, with which the disaffected and factious, in modern times, have sought to bring about revolutions, and to subvert all established order.'

DIVISION IV. MISCELLANEOUS AND LEXICOGRAPHICAL.

This is certainly one of the most interesting parts of the volume before us, we mean as to the lexicon: it is apparently executed with care; possesses a considerable degree of novelty in the arrangement of the radicals and derivatives; and is rendered both amusing and instructive by the number of appropriate quotations from the earliest poets, chroniclers, and historians, down to the latest and most approved writers of the English language, with the exception of all living authors. In order to explain the nature of this arrangement more particularly, we shall avail ourselves of the illustration given in the preface: taking, for example, the verb to *abandon*.

'The etymologist may conclude his researches, when he has traced this verb to the past participle of the Anglo-Saxon verb *Abannan*: which past participle, to support the etymology, he must give in all the different forms in which it is written. He sufficiently explains its meaning, when he has said that it means "To band, or bind; or put in bondage; to leave in, or give up to, to stay or remain in, a state of bondage or entire subjection."*

'Words very different in their origin will bear the same application, though the reason of that application will be different. It will, therefore, be expedient to enumerate the principal words, commonly called synonymous, or which will admit of such similar application. After the above explanation of the word *Abandon*, must be added, as synonymous, "To resign, to quit, to desert, to forsake."

'In the present instance it must be observed, that the word, when thus applied, is used simply; that is, without reference to the state of the object resigned, quitted, deserted, forsaken.

* Wisdom of Solomon, c. x. v. 14. She left him not in bonds, &c.'

'Here

‘ Here also will be found an application of the word consequent or inferred from the meaning. That which we *abandon*, resign, &c. we may be said “ To reject or cast away, to repel or drive away, to banish.”

It will sometimes also appear, that the words of similar application literally, will be different from those admitted metaphorically.

To *Abase*, for instance: As a synonym to this word when used *literally*, we employ “ To lower, to depress;” when used *metaphorically*, “ To lower, to degrade, to humble, to disgrace.” *Abase* your lance. His pride shall be abased.’

With regard to the arrangement of the radicals and its derivatives, the author observes:

“ The word explained, and its immediate derivatives, may be classed together: of such derivatives no explanation is necessary. Thus:

Aband. v.

Abandon. v.

Abandon. n.

Abandoner. n.

Abandoning.

Abandonment.

It is perfectly useless to inform a reader, that *Abandonment* is “ the act of *abandoning*,” that *Abandoner* is, “ one who forsakes.”

A general preface must ascertain the force of the terminations. It is upon the force of terms, or the number of ideas they are employed to denote, that the lexicographer, in his peculiar province, must bestow his labour: the grammarian must settle their manner of signification.

By thus classing the words with their immediate derivatives together, a glance will acquaint us with the barrenness or fertility of the parent branch; some abuses, which have been admitted in the process of composition, will be, with little difficulty, distinguished; and some guide will also be presented to direct our efforts for the improvement of our native tongue by the accumulation of new terms.

On the proposed order or arrangement of the citations chronologically, and on the four periods into which the author conceives that the several citations should be classed, we have no room to comment: but they certainly afford a very pleasing illustration of the progressive changes in the language, and the almost directly opposite signification which we now attach to some words, when compared with the import which they were at first intended to convey. We make one extract from an article taken at random, to manifest the nature of the arrangement of this instructive part of the work.

‘ ACCOMMODATE, v.

ACCOMMODATE, adj.

ACCOMMODATELY,

ACCOMMODATENESS,

ACCOMMODATION,

ACCOMMODATOR.

Ad: commodum, to the advantage of.

To act to the advantage, or for the benefit, or convenience of. To serve, to suit, to adapt, to adjust.

‘ But sithens it [*sc.* speaking in praise of the dead] hath bene approued and allowed of a long tyme, that it ought to be this done, it becommeth me, obeyuge to the lawe, to *accommodate* and apply my spekyng to the opynyō & wille of every one of you, the most that I maye.

Thucydides by Thos. Nicolls, Lon. 1550, fol. 54.

‘ As a king, which commandeth some goodly building to be erected, doth *accommodate* the same to that use and end, to which it was ordained; so it pleased God to command the light to be.

Raleigh's History of the World.

‘ BARD. Sir, pardon: a souldier is better *accommodated*, then with a wife.

‘ SHALL. It is well said, sir; and it is well said, indeede, too. Better *accommodated*? It is good, yea indeede is it: good phrases are surely, and euery where commendable. *Accommodated*, it comes of *accommodo*: very good, a good phrase.

Shakespeare, 2 H. IV. p. 86. act iii. sc. 2.

‘ ————— Thou art not noble,
For all the *accommodations* that thou bearest,
Are nurs'd by basenesse.

Id. M. for M. p. 70. act iii. sc. 1.

‘ K. JA. However, what is necessary for you
At your departure, I am well content
You be *accommodated* with.

Ford's Perkin Warbeck, act iv. sc. 3.

‘ It is not the endeavour of Moses, or the prophets to discover any mathematical or philosophical subtilties; but rather to *accommodate* themselves to vulgar capacities, and ordinary speech, as nurses are wont to use their infants.

Bishop Wilkins. Mat. and Phil. Works.

‘ Though the ultimate design of these parables, and the coming of *Christ* mentioned therein, refer to the great day of judgment, yet, both the duties, and the warnings, which are represented in these parables, seem to be very *accommodable* to the hour of our death. — *Watts's Discourses.*

‘ Heaven! speed the canvass, gallantly unfurl'd
To furnish and *accommodate* a world,
To give the pole the produce of the sun,
And knit th' unsocial climates into one!

Cowper's Charity.

We regret that the lexicon has not been kept distinct in a separate division, as it is too often interrupted by intervening miscellaneous articles.

We have only one other remark to make. The proprietors intend to publish the work anonymously, and to leave it to be judged by its own merits. We hope that they will abide by this determination; since nothing can be more deceptive than a long list of names of literary characters, published

lished with every part or volume of a book of this description : many whose names are thus given (we speak from our own positive knowledge of the fact) never writing or ever intending to write a single article in the work to which they are represented as contributors, but who lend their names as a mere matter of personal favour to the editor or proprietors. The present editors say : ' If it should appear desirable to their friends to be furnished with the actual list of managers and contributors, after the appearance of a few parts, they pledge themselves that such a list shall be given.' We think that their friends will not require it : at least, we are sure that they would not, if they were aware of the deception that *might* thus be practised on them. The work is before the public, and let the public form an unbiassed opinion of it. We are decidedly inclined to think, from what we have seen of it, that it will be a highly respectable performance. The paper and printing are very good ; and the plates are certainly not inferior to those of any performance of the same description ; which is saying much, after the beautiful specimens of engraving that have been exhibited in the voluminous and valuable Cyclopædia of Dr. Rees.

Since the above article was written, we have had an opportunity of looking over the second, third, and fourth parts of this Encyclopedia ; in which we observe nothing to alter the opinion that we had already formed.

ART. X. *Notes on a Visit made to some of the Prisons in Scotland and the North of England, in Company with Elizabeth Fry ; with some general Observations on the Subject of Prison-Discipline.* By Joseph John Gurney. 12mo. pp. 170. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

ENGLAND ! long has thy name been renowned for the benevolence of thy sons ! Scarcely a country on the earth has failed to hear of thy charities, or to share in thy bounty. Thy shores have been a refuge, and thy vallies an asylum, to the outcasts from their native land, who have fled to thee in the hour of their misfortune ; and who, whether bearing a friendly or a foeman's name, have received from thee the succour that they asked. Numerous, alas ! have been thy sins, and heavy ; and thy political blunders who can count ? Yet other nations have been equally guilty, and equally blind. Thy history, too, has been glorious, thy patriots renowned, thy career splendid, and thy struggles for liberty arduous and triumphant : but in these, as well as in thy crimes, thou wilt find competitors and rivals. In thy CHARITIES alone thou standest pre-eminent.

eminent. Where, but in England, does such a record of benevolence exist? Where, but in England, is Charity become a national characteristic as well as a private duty?

We are not much accustomed to apostrophize: but we cannot help feeling more than a little proud, when we see so many of our countrymen uniting in the preservation of the character of their land: using the leisure of peace in the alleviation of misery and the improvement of the human race; and endeavouring to counteract, by the most active exertions and the most judicious energies, the vices which have been introduced by luxury and by war.

In the relief of private and personal distress, — in the formation of public receptacles for the aged, the diseased, and the infirm, — and in providing for the instruction of the children of the poor, — prisons had been neglected till Howard set an example, which was followed by Nield, of penetrating into these receptacles of hitherto unnoticed misery. All who are acquainted with the exertions of those philanthropists will duly appreciate their endeavors towards improving the condition, and ameliorating the sufferings, of the wretched inhabitants of those dungeons of disgrace. Yet the efforts of Howard, truly says the author of the tract before us, ‘and the efforts which he excited in others, were directed more to the alleviation of distress than to the diminution of crime; more to the maintenance of the prisoner’s health than to the reformation of his morals.’ The progress of reform, however, is slow; and the first step, though it be small, is the most important, since it shews the possibility of moving out of the magic circle of customary abuse, and sets the example to others to proceed in the glorious enterprise. Never was a time more happily adapted than the present for the prosecution of benevolent undertakings; and never were so many individuals, possessing activity and discretion, willing to make the most of the opportunity, and to devote their time, abilities, and fortunes, to the advancement of their enlightened views.

Mr. Gurney, the brother of Mrs. Fry, whose name stands so eminent in the annals of philanthropy, informs us in his preface, that the principal object of their journey, in which the prisons noticed in this little useful work were examined, was connected with the concerns of the religious Society of Friends to which they belong. Their activity seems to have been most extraordinary; for, independently of their primary occupation, they inspected forty-one gaols in little more than one month, viz. from August 20. to September 29., and recorded the facts and observations which are here presented to
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the world. These facts, however, are not given with so much detail, nor the observations so systematized, as in Mr. Buxton's interesting inquiry; and the present author modestly offers them to keep alive the interest so universally excited in the subject, and 'to strengthen and confirm' the important proposition established by his predecessor, 'that by those jails on the one hand, which are conducted on bad principles, crime and misery are produced and multiplied: and on the other hand, that prisons, in which the prisoners are classified, inspected, instructed, and employed, have a powerful tendency to that, by which crime and misery will certainly be lessened, viz. the reformation of criminals.'

This object Mr. Gurney has undoubtedly accomplished; for no one can read the contrasted accounts of the different prisons, which he describes, without feeling most forcibly the effect of the comparison; without being satisfied that, independently of the prisoners themselves, society at large is materially benefited by that system which subjects them to inspection, to classification, to instruction, and to employment; or without being convinced that their return to vice is rendered much less probable, (for it is not necessary to carry the argument farther,) under such regulations, than when persons of all ages and degrees of guilt are indiscriminately mixed together to poison and be poisoned by the "evil communication," and allowed to follow the workings of their own wicked imaginations, for want of labour to occupy them, or instruction to lead their minds to better thoughts. We have, however, entered so fully into the inquiry in a recent Number, that it is unnecessary for us to enlarge on the present occasion.

The majority of the prisons described are situated in Scotland, and the state of them is undoubtedly worse than the condition of those on this side of the Tweed. This fact, however, is by no means a matter of triumph to an Englishman, since it clearly arises from the infrequency of crime among his northern brethren, and the consequent paucity of prisoners. It is no uncommon circumstance to find a Scottish gaol entirely empty; and in one instance, at Dundee, the magistrate who accompanied the visitors, stated 'that there had not been a criminal in the gaol for seven months!' Mr. Gurney adds; 'The small extent of crime, which this highly interesting fact evinces, may be attributed mainly to the universal religious education of the lower orders, and to the general dissemination amongst them of the Holy Scriptures.'

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That the comparatively bad state of the Scotch prisons is to be attributed, principally, to the above cause, is proved by the fact that the prisons in those places in which crime is necessarily increased in consequence of their large population, or their extensive commerce, (as in Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Perth,) will bear a comparison with some of the best in England. Even in these, however, much remains to be done, before a complete system of classification and employment can be effected. 'Evil association,' says Mr. Gurney, 'accompanied with total idleness, is the conspicuous, the fatal evil, by which almost all the more extensive prisons both in England and Scotland are as yet unhappily distinguished.' We are glad to see that an interest on this subject is already excited among our Scottish neighbours; and that committees are forming in their principal towns to assist the philanthropic and, we may say, *patriotic* object, of improving the condition, both bodily and mental, of their incarcerated fellow-creatures.

We extract an account of one of the district-gaols, and of the Bridewell lately erected on the Calton Hill at Edinburgh, as a corroboration of our remarks:

'DUNBAR JAIL.—You ascend up a narrow dirty staircase into two small rooms, of which this little borough jail consists. These rooms, one of which is for debtors, the other for criminals of all descriptions, are kept in a state of extreme filth, and are severally furnished with a little straw, and a tub for every dirty purpose. There is no court nor airing-ground in the prison, nor any other accommodation whatever. Happily there was no one confined here.'—

'EDINBURGH BRIDEWELL.—From the Jail we passed on to the Bridewell, the two buildings being situated close together.—The latter we saw under great disadvantage; for in consequence of its being under repair, the prisoners were shut up in their sleeping-cells, instead of being at work as is usually the case. The plan of this prison is very celebrated, on account of its affording an opportunity of inspection into the several apartments, in which the prisoners work and pass the day. This important object has been effected by the prison's being built in the form of a semicircle, in the centre of which is a watch tower. The prison consists of four stories, besides the attic story, which is occupied by the infirmary. In each of these four stories there are thirteen working cells, open in front, and looking inwards towards the tower. In that tower there is, on the second story, a semicircular apartment fitted up with several long and very narrow windows, from which the inspector, without being discerned himself, has a complete view of what is passing in all the working-cells. This arrangement of the building is very convenient for another purpose also; for on the outside of the watch-tower, in the

the court which divides it from the working-cells, and facing the front cells, is the pulpit, from which the minister may be distinctly seen and heard by the prisoners whilst they continue in their respective cells; and thus the whole forms an excellent and commodious chapel.

' The working-cells are surrounded on the other side by a vaulted passage running along the whole of the semicircular range, in the several stories of the building. This passage separates them from the sleeping-cells, the windows of which are in the exterior wall of the prison. The sleeping-cells are airy, and of a good size for one person; the working-cells are also well adapted for their purpose, and are warmed by flues. This is a house of labour: most of the prisoners are employed in weaving linen, cotton, and woollen stuffs. When those who have been bred to handicraft trades are in custody, they are employed, as occasion requires, for the use of the prison, in carpenter's or painter's work, shoemaking, white-washing, &c. Some of the more trusty females are occupied in cooking and washing. The garden also is cultivated by the prisoners; and all the bedding and clothing used in the prison are manufactured within its walls.

' The produce of a prisoner's labour is applied to his own maintenance. If there be any surplus, as is commonly the case, it is either for the support of his family if he have one, or else it is given to him when his term of confinement is completed. He receives it in three parts; the first on his leaving the prison; the second and third, on a certificate of good conduct being received, at the expiration of six and twelve months respectively. The prisoners in this Bridewell are well clothed and fed: their bedding also is excellent, probably somewhat too comfortable—a straw mattress, a sheet, a pillow, and two double blankets. Care is taken to ensure the cleanliness of their persons, for they are all bathed once every week.

' This Bridewell is regularly visited both by a surgeon and a chaplain, the latter of whom collects the prisoners for the purpose of divine worship once on the first day of the week and once on another day. On the former of these days they are instructed and catechised, and wholesome regulations have been adopted for the maintenance of order amongst them during this weekly period of leisure. A school-master gives attendance for two hours daily, in order to instruct such of the prisoners as are unable to read and write.'

Mr. Gurney then proceeds to point out some of the disadvantages of this prison:

' Admirable as are many of the regulations of this Bridewell, and vastly superior as it is to those more miserable prisons where criminals are herded together in total idleness, there are nevertheless connected with it some unfavourable circumstances, which have hitherto prevented its being, in so great a degree as might be desired, a house of reformation. The first is, that the semicircular arrangement of the working-cells, at the same time that it

is so well calculated for the purpose of inspection, enables the prisoners to see out of one cell into another, and thus gives the opportunity, notwithstanding much watchfulness on the part of the keepers, of improper and dangerous conversation. The second is, that the doors and windows of every two night-cells are so near to one another that the prisoners can converse freely together after they are locked up for the night. This of course they do, and without the possibility of detection or prevention. The third and principal source of evil is the inadequacy of the prison in point of size. There are in it only 52 working-rooms and 144 sleeping-cells; it being intended for not more than 144 prisoners; but the persons committed to the Bridewell are at all times so very much more numerous, that both sleeping and working-cells are very improperly crowded. This gives rise, of course, to much evil communication, and greatly impedes the system of labour, on the regularity of which the use of the Bridewell mainly depends.

‘To meet this exigency, additional buildings are absolutely necessary. Were the present Bridewell appropriated to females, and another house of correction built for the men, the existing want of accommodation would be remedied, and that complete separation between the sexes, which is of such essential consequence, would in the best possible manner be effected.

‘Much benefit might also arise both in the Bridewell and the Jail at Edinburgh, from their being regularly visited by a committee of benevolent and independent persons, who might provide instruction for the ignorant and employment for the idle, and might exercise over the prisoners individually that kind and Christian care, which would be the most likely means of introducing them, not only into serious reflection, but into the habits of virtue and respectability.

‘I am not willing to quit the subject of these two prisons without bearing my testimony, in conclusion, to the assiduity and humanity of the two governors.’

Among the ‘General Observations,’ at the conclusion of the work, are the subsequent, with regard to the Scottish prisons:

‘There are certain peculiarities in the construction and management of many jails in Scotland, which, in the first place, deserve a distinct notice. They may be shortly enumerated as follows: No airing-grounds;—no change of rooms;—tubs in the prisoners’ cells for the reception of every kind of filth;—black holes;—no religious service;—jailers living away from their prisons; consequently, an impossibility of any inspection, and an almost total absence of care;—free communication through the windows of the cells with the public.

‘The three last-mentioned particulars have an obvious tendency to encourage disorder; the others as evidently entail a dreadful degree of wretchedness. To the particulars in Scotch jails which are productive of unnecessary suffering, may also be added the long iron bar which is fixed in the floor, and through which the legs

legs of the prisoner are fastened by rings. This, as far as we have observed, is the most usual method of chaining adopted in Scotland — and a more cruel one could not easily have been devised; for it not only keeps the legs of the prisoner constantly apart from each other, but prevents his undressing or going to bed.*

It is indeed a happy circumstance that so many of the prisons in Scotland are without any inhabitants. Certainly, when any unfortunate person does become the inmate of some of these dreadful abodes, his situation is truly pitiable. He probably finds himself in a damp, dark, and filthy cell; it may be, with only straw for his bed — assailed by the most noisome smells — entirely solitary, without any possibility of change, exercise, or relief. If he has been imprudent enough to attempt his escape from his misery, that misery will be doubled by his being chained to the iron bar, or consigned to the yet more terrible dungeon denominated the black hole. Amidst all this suffering, no religious instructor visits him, and even his appointed keeper lives entirely out of his reach.

Can it be justifiable that any human being, and more especially the untried prisoner, who is innocent in the eye of the law, should be exposed to sufferings so multiplied and so little alleviated, and for a length of time together?

The author next adverts to the treatment of debtors and lunatic prisoners in Scotland, which is peculiarly deplorable; that of the former arising from the responsibility of the gaoler and the magistrate in case of escape, and that of the latter from the want of proper asylums for their reception. He also makes some judicious remarks under the several heads of food, clothing, firing, sleeping, irons, cleanliness, inspection, superintendence, classification, instruction, and employment; and the following is his summing up of the state of the prisons visited:

* Some † of the prisons now described — for instance, Durham Old Jail and House of Correction, and the Jails at Haddington, Aberdeen, Glasgow, and Carlisle, are scarcely exceeded by anything of badness in Buxton's worst specimens. Others, for example, the Bridewell at Aberdeen and House of Correction at Preston, approach in some respects to his standard of excellence. But they are nevertheless not without defects, which have hitherto prevented their becoming, to the full extent, schools of reform. A third description of prisons, such as those at Wakefield, York, Edinburgh, Lancaster, Liverpool, and Manchester — presents to

* The iron bars, in the condemned cells at Edinburgh, are fixed in the wall; and as the prisoner is fastened to them by a long chain they do not produce the effects here mentioned.

† (Perth.) In describing this prison, the author makes rather a ludicrous association. Speaking of the prisoners, he says, 'They are obliged to wash themselves every morning. None of them are ironed.'

us a medium picture of good and bad qualities; the proportion of what is good or bad varying of course in the different jails, and the whole leaving an impression not altogether of the most pleasing kind.'

Mr. Gurney is forced to acknowledge that the *average* state of the prisons which he describes is low, and 'that the result on the whole is a very unfavourable one:' but we do not see that either he or his friends are disheartened by the extent of their labours. Nor should they be so discouraged. Difficulties give an impetus to the active mind; and the exertions of the benevolent are sure to excite emulation. Here also, besides the mere gratification of a humane feeling, motives of greater weight, and objects of higher importance, influence their labours; viz. the promotion of morality and virtue, the prevention of crime, and the reformation of the hardened offender. That the endeavours of those, who enter heartily into the spirit of the work, will meet with this reward, is sufficiently proved by a material fact, with which we shall close the article. Before the formation of the Ladies' Association in Newgate, the numbers of females who, after having been dismissed, came back to that prison convicted of fresh offences, were, to the returns of the male side, as 3 to 5: but, since the commencement of the exertions of these ladies, the proportion of the returns of the female criminals, who have been under their care, is not more to the returns on the male side than as 1 to 12. This single fact speaks volumes.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JUNE, 1819.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 11. *Parliamentary Letters*, and others Poems. By Q. in the Corner. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

Q. in the Corner, according to a rustic phrase which lately amused us, *improves for the better*. He seems, indeed, to have rapid vacillations of literary health: he began well*; he became worse*; he is now mending. The '*Parliamentary Letters*' have really much Ansteyan fun about them; and Bath would appear to be the fountain of inspiration for *cantering* rhymes of this description.

* See Rev. vol. lxxxiv. p. 103.; and vol. lxxxvi. p. 327.

For example:

' The great dissolution-of-parliament day
Will soon clear the seats of both Houses they say,
Our Members would doubtless remain there for ever,
If left 'till they all had exhausted their breath :
But that's not the case, for a Parliament never
Is suffer'd to die of a natural death :
When like to be ousted, and laid on the shelf,
'Twill always lay violent hands on itself ;
As a sensible dog, who knows what he's about,
Sneaks off — at a rumour of turning him out.
Then many a Member will prove he is willing,
For England's advantage, to spend his last shilling ;
Regardless of self, he'll throw thousands about him,
Assured that the Senate could not do without him.

' The man who is Member at present, I hear,
Intends, if he can, to oppose my career ;
But as I am the richest, his friends will soon see
Some weighty inducements for fixing on me ;
And they'll say, when his fortune no longer contents them,
Their old representative misrepresents them.'

We wish, however, that this happily buffooning author, in his jokes on 'Parliamentary Corruption,' would be so good as to steer clear of the subject of *Reform*. "*Non tali auxilio,*" &c. if, indeed, he means to defend *what is right* at all, and is not a wholesale defender of *what is wrong*. In truth, the subject of *Reform*, on which the absolute existence of England depends, is much too serious for any of these ribald jokes, in or out of Parliament; and, while we deprecate the extravagance of popular feeling, with tenfold eagerness we oppose its detestable antipode, the excess of despotic coercion. Those who love a rational liberty must abhor an unreasonable influence; and, therefore, they must consider as their active enemies those visionary reformers, who lose the practice in the theory of improvement.

We return, after this warning to abstain from forbidden ground, to the good-humoured trifle before us.

Human Joys and Human Woes.

' As pebbles on the beach appear
Beneath the waters, bright and clear ;
But taken thence and dried, they lose
Their polish'd and transparent hues ;
So human joys in youth receive
Those charms which youth alone can give ;
But when that ardent time is o'er,
Their brightest tints are seen no more.

' As summer clouds, that lightly pass
In shadows o'er the sunny grass,

And

And quickly vanish, having made
 Nought but a momentary shade;
 So human woes, when hearts are gay,
 Glide imperceptibly away;
 And having done their worst, we find
 They scarcely leave a trace behind.'

The author is rather too fond of *pebbles*, and exhibits them on several occasions.

'The river winds on with a surface so clear,
 That through it the *pebbles* distinctly appear.' P. 53.

'And the *pebbles* that whisper, when touch'd by the tide.'

We are too *stony-hearted* to allow this expression to be fortunate; and we must observe that it is not among the *albo signata* LAPILLO.

Let us subjoin a just satire on a most ridiculous and reprehensible amusement of our cotemporaries:

'In patent Kaleidoscopes all may discern
 A novel attraction at every turn;
 And every movement presents to the sight
 A figure more perfect, a colour more bright;
 But waltzing, though charming to those who can do it,
 Is rather fatiguing to people who view it:
 For though *turns* are incessant, no *changes* you meet,
 But giddiness, bustle, embracing, and heat.

'At first they move slowly, with caution and grace,
 Like horses when just setting out on a race;
 For dancers at balls, just like horses at races,
 Must amble a little to show off their paces.
 The music plays faster, their raptures begin,
 Like lambskins they skip, like tetotums they spin:
 Now draperies whirl, and now petticoats fly,
 And ankles at least are exposed to the eye.

'O'er the chalk-cover'd ball-room in circles they swirl;
 He smiles upon her, and she smiles upon him;
 Her arm on his shoulder is tenderly placed,
 His hand quite as tenderly circles her waist;
 They still bear in mind, as they're turning each other,
 The proverb "one good turn's deserving another;"
 And these *bodily turns* often end, it is said,
 In turning the lady's or gentleman's head.'

'Postscript.

'When you talk of this dance, I request it may be,
 Not waltzing, but valtzing, pronounced with a v.'

We recommend the perusal of this unexaggerated description to those silly young men among us, who deny the *souls* of the satirists of waltzing.

Art. 12. *Revenge defeated and Self-punished.* A Dramatic Poem.
8vo. pp. 32. Souter. 1818.

In the first scene of this play, a prince tells one of his female subjects, with whom he is in love, that to gain whatever she wants, 'to reach it' for her,

— ' he'll rush thro' hungry fires,
Or ride on pitiless waves to distant lands :'

to which the lady replies ;

' Too poor, too mean. Ten thousand, thousand more
Such paltry bribes can't purchase my fond love.'

She proceeds in a strain equally sublime: but we think that our readers must be as well satisfied as ourselves with this specimen. If not, we offer them another, of a different kind. Scene 5th. The interior of the wood. Enter Rogella—a country lass, with a disordered mind: her hair and dress in confusion.

' She sings.

' But now he loves another —
Another — yes ! — another —
But now he loves another —
He lov'd me once — Ah me !
Sitting under the acorn tree ;
But now he loves another —
He sang to me — to me,
Sitting under the chesnut tree,
And now he sings to another ! ! !'

Drivel, drivel, drivel, when wilt thou cease to drivel?

Art. 13. *The Pilgrim's Fate*, and other Poems. By Ingram Cobbin, M. A. Author of "Philanthropy," &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Half-bound. Black and Son. 1818.

Mr. Cobbin mentions, in his preface, that a season of indisposition gave rise to these pages; and he justly observes that, 'during a period of illness, though the powers of the imagination may suffer, the feelings of the heart are then alive to the most tender emotions and under the influence of the most exalted views.' His sentiments and reflections are uniformly moral, and his poetry is not devoid of harmony, though it compels us occasionally to "clip the King's English," as in page 37.;

' But earth's theatre yet shall marvels see ;'

and page 75.,

' And now would rank with high degree
And scorn such plebeians as we,' &c. &c.

Art. 14. *The Priory of Birkenhead*; a Tale of the Fourteenth Century. By Thomas Whitby. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Souter. 1819.

REV. JUNE, 1819.

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The reader will find in this poem some very prosaic lines, but the composition is in general tolerably flowing, and some of the descriptive passages may gratify a taste for picturesque scenery.

NOVELS.

- Art. 15. *Conirdan*; or, The St. Kildians, a moral Tale. By the Author of "Hardenbrass and Haverill." 12mo. 7s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

Conirdan is rather an interesting personage; and, if we except the stale incident of a lady falling into the water, and her lover performing the part of "Great John Grout" and pulling her out, the rest of the tale has some claim to originality.

- Art. 16. *Lionel*; or, The Last of the Pevenseys. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

In this novel, such conversations as seem intended to be playful or sentimental are strained and obscure, and the fair Clara is made to harangue her lover like a metaphysician: yet, in other passages, an occasional force of language, and some interesting scenes, induce us to believe that the writer, by cultivating a more simple style, might produce works that would be generally pleasing.

- Art. 17. *The Maid of Killarney*; or, Albion and Flora, a Modern Tale; in which are interwoven some cursory Remarks on Religion and Politics. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

This writer's style is animated; and, without dealing much in highly wrought sentiments or romantic adventures, he has here produced a pleasing tale, in which the interests of religion are sedulously kept in view.

- Art. 18. *Llewellen*; or, The Vale of Phlinlimmon. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Underwood. 1818.

The best character in this book is that of an old Scotch lady, whose dialect and manners are delineated with some humour; but the rest of the personages and the whole of the story are romantic and unnatural, and many errors and Scotisms might be pointed out; such as, vol. i. p. 115., 'The virtuous *Marchia* towers above her sex;' page 161., 'I shall be the better of a ride;' p. 178., 'Isabella was not long of discovering;' p. 187., 'Women are terrified for the term old maid.' Vol. ii. p. 83., 'Sir Charles was not long of singling her out,' &c. &c.

- Art. 19. *Edward Wortley, and the Exile of Scotland*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Whiteley. 1819.

The first of these stories consists chiefly of an American Itinerary, in which the trans-Atlantic farmers are said (vol. ii. p. 327.) to 'manure their lands with *plaister* (plaster) of Paris, whose *sceptical* properties on new soils produced excellent crops.' The American ladies are here styled *Fair Belles*; and to one of them, Mr. Wortley, the hero, addresses the following avowal: (vol. i. p. 283.) 'I am the unalterable slave of another's affections, to whom I pledged my vows.' When this gentleman examines pictures, he

he is said to be 'struck with the boldness of the *Caraccus*;' and in vol. ii., p. 313., we find that he accommodates his friend with a house, 'as Sir Edward had a residence which he thought would *temporary* suit him.'

'The Exile of Scotland' is a wild romantic tale, devoid of all manifestation of interest which can blind the reader to its improbabilities, or to the grammatical errors with which these volumes abound.

Art. 20. *Principle and Passion.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

An improbable story, fluently related, and inculcating morality, which seems to be "the order of the day" with the present race of novelists; though we fear that little real instruction, or useful warning, can be gained from such romantic sentiments and unlikely incidents as are here presented to us.

Art. 21. *Coraly.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

The heroine of this tale seems intended to be "severe in youthful beauty:" but her abhorrence of vice is sometimes expressed in rather scurrilous terms, as our readers, if they peruse the novel, will find by referring to vol. i. p. 173, &c. We observe, however, nothing objectionable in the story; and some passages may be deemed rather interesting.

EDUCATION.

Art. 22. *A concise System of Commercial Arithmetic*, adapted to modern Practice. With an Appendix; containing a Series of Queries on Bills and Merchants' Accounts; comprising the Substance of the Mercantile Law and Practice, with regard to the Nature and Negotiation of Drafts, and Foreign Bills of Exchange. To which are subjoined a Course of Mercantile Letters; also, Duodecimals, Timber-measuring, Artificers' Computations, and the Square and Cube Root; with their Application. By James Morrison, Accountant, Master of the Mercantile Academy, Leeds. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have here another addition to the already over-stocked shelves in Paternoster-Row; where books on arithmetic spring up like mushrooms in a summer-morning, and many of them wither and disappear almost as quickly. Every author has his reasons for publishing; he can always find something amiss in those that have gone before him; the arrangement is not exactly what it ought to be; the rules for fractions come too soon or too late; the cancelling of the terms is not properly managed; the rules for repeating decimals are not sufficiently extended, or probably they are given too much at length: the questions in addition and subtraction are too difficult, or too simple; the entire work is too great or too small by at least a dozen pages; with a thousand other such frivolous allegations, advanced merely to cover the vanity of the writer, and to furnish apologies for his new attempt.

The author of this little treatise, though he has not failed to

avail himself of certain of the preceding excuses, has yet a still more striking defect to state as a matter of complaint; viz. the entire omission in every work on this subject of the *Rule of Bankruptcy*!! We certainly must allow that questions of this kind too frequently present themselves; and we can account for the omission only by supposing that hitherto they have generally been solved by what is called the Rule of Three, to which they properly belong.

If, instead of inventing new rules, (as writers on arithmetic are pleased to call them,) authors would endeavour to diminish those that already exist, they would render a much greater service both to the student and the tutor. The examples now inserted even in our best books of arithmetic, under the denomination of Commission, Brokerage, Interest, Discount, Gain and Loss, Partnership, and a crowd of others of the same kind, being merely varieties of cases in the Rule of Three, ought to be given as such; and all these names should be expunged from our elementary treatises, except as far as it might be necessary to define them for the sake of rendering such commercial terms intelligible to inexperienced students. Allowing, however, for this fancy of the present author, we must do him the justice to say that he has composed a very respectable little work; which, we have no doubt, will be found useful to the student whose views are to acquire a knowledge of mercantile transactions.

Art. 23. *A short Treatise upon Book-keeping by Single Entry*, adapted to the Use of Schools, and intended as a Supplement to Walkingame's Arithmetic, by the Editor of that popular Work. Part I. 12mo. 1s. Scatcherd and Co.

The plan of this short treatise is to give a series of such transactions as frequently occur in business, but leaving the calculations as exercises for the student. It is probable that some tutors may find this to be an useful appendix to the arithmetic to which the author refers.

Art. 24. *Octary Arithmetic*; or, the Art of Doubling and Halving by the Cypher; containing a perfect System of Measure and Weight, with Specimens of the New Logarithms. By John Richardson, Churchill, Somerset. 8vo. pp. 14. Longman and Co.

This author observes that he 'hesitates not to affirm that his work is the richest arithmetical treasure ever presented to man;' but, for our own part, we consider it quite in another light; for we can perceive in it neither utility nor ingenuity, but a mere jumble of crude ideas, resembling more the dream of some restless and nervous calculator, than the result of many years of study. Yet, with such a system, Mr. Richardson thinks, nay is certain, that the wildest nations would soon excel even the illustrious Newton.

Art. 25. *Affection's Gift to a beloved Godchild*. By M. H. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

Some well meant and moral advice on the regulation of female prin-

principles and conduct is offered in this little volume. Among others, the chapter on politeness may be noticed as one of the best written: but we may observe that the word *definition* is twice incorrectly spelled, at pp. 72. and 74., where it is printed *diffinition*.

Art. 26. *Report of the Institution for the Education of Deaf and Dumb Children*, established June 25. 1810; and incorporated by Seal of Cause from the Magistrates of Edinburgh; with Specimens of Composition, &c. 8vo. pp. 72. Edinburgh. 1818.

We are happy to record the success of an institution among our northern neighbours, similar to that which is so popular and so useful in our metropolis. Though it is at present on a limited scale, educating only fifty children, it seems merely necessary to state that the number of deaf and dumb persons in Scotland appears to be not less than 800, in order to warrant our anticipation of a great enlargement of the establishment, by the benevolent support of those who are as yet unaware of this affecting fact. The 'Specimens of Composition' are peculiarly interesting, and do credit to the exertions of Mr. Kinniburgh, the teacher.

Art. 27. *The Traveller in Asia: or, A Visit to the most celebrated Parts of the East Indies and China. With an Account of the Manners of the Inhabitants, Natural Productions, and Curiosities. For the Instruction and Entertainment of Young Persons. With a Map of the Route.* By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Harvey.

Mrs. Wakefield here displays the same extensive information and agreeable arrangement which made her other works so valuable for young readers; and the volume will form a most acceptable sequel to the ingenious "Travels in Africa and America," for which the rising generation is already indebted to this lady.

Art. 28. *Guy's new Exercises in Orthography.* Containing Selections from the most admired Authors, in prose and verse. By Joseph Guy, jun., Master of the Academy in Foley-Street, Cavendish-Square. 12mo. 1s. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

Mr. Guy has here selected such passages as may improve the taste, while they exercise the orthographical knowledge of those pupils who are not afraid of retaining in their memory some of the incorrect spelling thus sedulously placed before them.

Art. 29. *The First French Guide; containing an Easy Spelling Book, Reading Exercises, and Recapitulation of the various Sounds of the French Language, a Vocabulary of Nouns, and an Easy Introduction to the French Grammar.* By J. Cherpilloud, Author of "The Book of Versions," &c. 12mo. pp. 150. Hailes. 1818.

All needless perplexities seem to be avoided in this spelling book; and its ease and simplicity render it calculated to assist and allure the young student.

Art. 30. *A Comparison between the Idioms, Genius, and Phraseology of the French and English Languages; illustrated in an*
P 3 Alpha-

Alphabetical Series of Examples, &c. By W. Duverger. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1818.

It appears to us that this is a work of great accuracy and industry. M. Duverger speaks very modestly concerning the possible incorrectness of his English sentences, which are nevertheless sufficiently idiomatic; and a careful comparison of them with the French must give considerable precision and knowledge in that language. The marks for assisting the pronunciation are also ingenious and useful.

Art. 31. *Margaret Melville, the Soldier's Daughter; or Juvenile Memoirs: interspersed with Remarks on the Propriety of encouraging British Manufactures.* By Alicia Catherine Mant. 12mo. pp. 209. Whittaker. 1818.

Various particulars of information concerning British manufactures, which the fair writer has here introduced, give value to her book; which may be safely recommended to young readers, though some expressions may be noticed as objectionable. For instances, page 101., 'the overweening indulgence,' for *overweening*; p. 153., 'you will be tired of your old *cosing* friend,' &c.

POLITICS.

Art. 32. *Rational Reform on Constitutional Principles: addressed to the good Sense of the English Nation.* By George Carr, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 270. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

The partisans of parliamentary reform must forgive us if we decline on this occasion to enter at any length on a topic so often discussed; and we beg Mr. Carr to exercise equal indulgence, if we add that his pages really do not possess that attraction which alone could induce us to depart from this intention.

The object of his work is to 'inquire into the present constitution of parliament in reference to the House of Commons, examining how far it is adapted to the purpose of legislation, and noticing both the existing abuses and proposed remedies;' and his book is divided into chapters, which treat successively of the 'legitimacy of government; the borough-system; the unity of the executive power; the national charters; the responsibility of ministers; and finally of taxation;'—topics certainly of high importance, but to be rendered interesting only by a writer who is perfectly familiar with the principles of government, with the British constitution, and with the grand political events in our history. That such is not the case with Mr. C. may be very soon ascertained by any person who attempts to follow him through his diffuse reasonings; or who, without submitting to this penance, adopts the more ready mode of referring from any title in the table of contents to the corresponding page of the text. We have repeatedly had occasion to regret the abortive attempts of writers on political economy; and to disapprove that mode of composition which deals in metaphysical investigation, when the attention of the public should be attracted by an account of facts, of remarkable individuals, or in short of whatever forms the most inviting prelude

lead to general disquisition. Until the importance of this rule be more strongly felt and adopted in practice; we despair of the public being much interested in such topics; and writers who follow the plan of Mr. Carr may reckon on experiencing neglect, however patriotic their intention, or however respectable their philosophic erudition.

Art. 33. *A Commentary on the Treaties entered into between his Britannic Majesty, and his most faithful Majesty, signed at London, the 28th of July, 1817; between his Britannic Majesty, and his Catholic Majesty, signed at Madrid, the 23d of September, 1817; and between his Britannic Majesty, and his Majesty the King of the Netherlands, signed at the Hague, the 4th of May, 1818; for the Purpose of preventing their Subjects from engaging in any illicit Traffic in Slaves.* By Robert Thorpe, Esq. LL.D. 8vo. pp. 60. Longman and Co. 1819.

The name of Judge Thorpe will, without difficulty, be recollected by those who have followed the late parliamentary discussions relative to the abolition of the slave-trade, or rather the arguments that have been urged for retaining or relinquishing our ill fated settlement at Sierra Leone. Having been long since recalled from the exercise of his judicial functions at that place, Dr. T. takes up the pen to shew that our late treaties with Portugal and Spain, for the abolition of the slave-trade, are very imperfectly worded, and may even have an effect contrary to their intended object. He quotes one article which directs that no slave-ship shall be searched by an officer in our navy below the rank of lieutenant: a provision which, in his opinion, is by no means necessary, and which excludes the co-operation of a number of active individuals. Nothing, he adds, (p. 42.) could be more ill chosen than the situation of Sierra Leone: one-third of the white inhabitants die there annually; and, from the nature of the periodical winds, slave-ships detained on the coast near the equator may lose not only weeks but months, in beating about before they can be brought in for adjudication. The northern powers of Europe, as well as France and the Netherlands, have shewn themselves sincerely desirous of abolishing this nefarious traffic: but Portugal and Spain are otherwise; the former on account of Brazil, the latter on account of Cuba. Recent advices from various quarters, says Dr. T., (p. 51.) convey the distressing assurance of a progressive increase of the trade, slaves being landed by the hundred in the Havannah, where they are openly sold and sent to various parts of the West Indies; and he thinks that nothing will stop so lucrative a speculation, except a general sanction from the governments of Europe to the commanders of armed vessels, public or private, to detain all persons engaged in it: a sanction that should be followed by a positive order that, when tried and found guilty, they shall be punished as pirates.

We apprehend that Dr. T.'s statement of the existing extent of the slave-trade is considerably exaggerated: but we fear that its

virtual abolition is yet remote; and that, before this most desirable result can be attained, many valuable lives will be lost in the malignant atmosphere of Sierra Leone, which is likely; as we perceived from the debate in parliament four or five months ago, to continue for a considerable time the port of adjudication. We shall not at present express any farther opinion on the fundamental merits of the question: but we have no hesitation in passing a literary sentence on the pamphlet before us, the composition of which is marked by a looseness and inaccuracy that we should certainly not have expected from an occupant of the bench.

Art. 34. *A Series of Letters on the Circulating Medium of the British Isles*; addressed to the Editor of the Royal Cornwall Gazette, and originally published in that Paper for November 28., December 12., and December 19., 1818. 8vo. pp. 48. Printed at Truro.

Art. 35. *Two Supplementary Letters (being the Fifth and Sixth of a Series) on the Circulating Medium of the British Isles*; originally published in the Royal Cornwall Gazette for 13th, 20th, and 27th of February, 1819; with a Summary of the Contents of each of the Six Letters prefixed. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Printed at Truro.

Cornwall is not exactly the quarter from which we should expect a definitive elucidation of a topic so intricate in itself, and requiring so much previous study, as the "principles of money:" nor can we congratulate this writer on having brought his subject before the public in the most clear and convincing manner. His plan is to make our standard consist not of a specific denomination of gold coin, such as the guinea or sovereign, but of a certain *weight* of gold of the same degree of fineness with the present sovereigns; a system under which he hopes that the relative value of the precious metals and paper-currency would henceforth be exempt from fluctuation. We will not trespass on the patience of our readers by a detail of the various desultory arguments urged in favour of this plan: but we willingly admit, what the author seems not a little anxious to claim, its perfect originality, notwithstanding its resemblance to the plan of Mr. Ricardo, the outline of which was noticed in our number for October, 1816. In other points, such as the propriety of establishing branch-banks (as in Scotland), the evils of a forced paper-currency, and the possibility of depreciation from over-issue at a time when ultimate solvency is undoubted, we cordially agree with this writer: but we regret that, when republishing his ideas in the shape of a pamphlet, he did not alter the form of composition by condensing his detached letters into a connected essay: thus avoiding repetitions, and attaining the greatest brevity in a discussion in which, from its inherent dryness, brevity is a primary consideration.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 36. *An Eulogium on Sir Samuel Romilly*, pronounced at the Royal Athenæum of Paris, on the 26th of December, 1818.

By M. Benjamin Constant. Edited by Sir T. C. Morgan. 8vo. pp. 78. Colburn. 1819.

Every man has a feeling of gratification in finding that his commonest opinions are echoed by others, and that his prepossessions and even his prejudices are not confined to himself. How much, then, must that feeling be increased, when the object of his veneration and regard, the man to whom he has looked up as a patriot, is not only viewed in the same light by his countrymen, but even made the subject of eulogy in a rival nation! The name of Benjamin Constant is well known to our readers, who will anticipate the manner in which he appreciates the character of Sir Samuel Romilly. In his eulogy on that lamented individual, he has treated the subject with great judgment and delicacy. After having noticed his private virtues and his legal eminence, the orator views him in his public character, as Solicitor-General and as senator: dwells on his patriotic endeavours to ameliorate the criminal code, to reform the representation, and to improve other parts of the English law; and speaks of him as the assertor of British liberty, as the advocate of the African slave, and lastly as stopping the progress of the Protestant persecution in the South of France. In the pursuit of this design, M. de C. details his own views of our laws, sometimes in contrast with those of France, and takes notice of the characters of our statesmen. He mentions also the curious fact that, during Sir Samuel Romilly's visit to France, he drew up, at the desire of Mirabeau, an abridged account of the forms observed in debating and voting in the House of Commons, which Mirabeau afterward published, acknowledging his obligation in the advertisement. — We consider this as an interesting pamphlet.

Art. 37. *Junius unmasked*; a well known and most eminent literary Character of the last Century. 8vo. pp. 48. Wilson. 1819.

We have here one more (and assuredly one more unsuccessful) attempt at decyphering the grand mystery; and one that is not inferior in confidence of tone or allegation of circumstantial evidence, to that which lately assigned the laurels of Junius to Sir Philip Francis. We are first presented in the title-page with a *vignette* or miniature portrait, which, in point of unseemly feature, may stand a comparison with a profile of our countryman Soame Jenyns, or his late imperial majesty Paul of Russia: after which the author begins in due form by quoting, from the prefatory essay to Woodfall's last edition of the Letters of Junius, (reported in M. R. August, 1813,) the requisites which are indispensable in any candidate for the distinguished honour in question. These are that he must have been "deeply versed in the English constitution; in easy if not affluent circumstances; a resident in London or its vicinity from 1767 to 1772," &c. all which, and many other appropriate characteristics, this writer asserts to have been combined in the case of *Mr. Gibbon*. That gentleman, it seems, mentions in his "Memoirs" (p. 25.) that "he dined with Wilkes in September, 1762, and found him a most pleasant companion but
a thorough

a thorough profligate:" moreover, Mr. G. wrote an essay on the character of Brutus, analyzed a part of Blackstone, and; in his capacity of a militia-officer, had a singular dislike to the "Guards;" all of which, says the writer of this pamphlet, was in exact co-incidence with the case of Junius. We are next favoured with an extract from Mr. G.'s diary, written on the anniversary of his 26th birth-day; when, looking into the peculiarities of his character, he declares himself "incapable of a base action, but proud, violent, and disagreeable in society;" qualities which of course can belong to none but the irritable and imperious Junius. Equal confidence is displayed by the author in his manner of overcoming objections. Mr. G.'s Memoirs contain very few letters to Lord Sheffield during the five years (from 1767 to 1772) in which Junius corresponded with Woodfall: 'letters,' says the present writer, (p. 41.) 'there certainly were, but they have been kept back by Lord Sheffield.' Again, Mr. Gibbon having declared that he published nothing political during the fifteen years from 1761 to 1776, this is said to be no argument, because the letters of Junius were published by and for Woodfall.

Art. 38. *Occurrences during a Six Months' Residence in the Province of Calabria Ulteriore*, in the Kingdom of Naples, in the Years 1809, 1810; containing a Description of the Country, Remarks on the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, and Observations on the Conduct of the French towards them, with Instances of their Oppression, &c. By Lieut. P. J. Elmhirst, R. N. 8vo. pp. 176. 6s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

This plain and unambitious tract is less a description of the country than a record of the observations of a young naval officer, who had the misfortune to be made prisoner in the autumn of 1809, in consequence of a prize-ship committed to his care having sprung a leak, which obliged him and a small party of seamen under his command to seek shelter on the coast of Calabria. It was in vain that they endeavoured to pass for Americans, and to allege the loss of their papers: the inhabitants insisted that they must be British, and their safety at last required an unreserved disclosure.—The shipwreck took place in the south-east extremity of Calabria, a country remote from the seat of government, and which was then in a very disturbed state; the mountaineers refusing to submit to the French, and receiving frequent supplies of ammunition from Sicilian and Neapolitan vessels. This circumstance led to many sanguinary scenes between them and the French military who were stationed throughout the country, and necessitated the removal of Lieut. E. and his small party to Monte Leone, a town at a considerable distance on the north-west coast of Calabria. In the course of this journey, as during the whole of their captivity, they were treated with great kindness by the French officers; who not only prevented the natives from plundering their effects, but shared cheerfully with them their lodging, provisions, or other accommodations.

Lieut. E. proceeds to give an account of the manners of the Calabrese,

Calabrese, and describes them as a hardy race, very little benefited by education, but evidently well fitted for improvement. The Italian spoken here is a singular mixture, containing a number of words derived from the Greek, with others of Celtic or Arabic origin. Tillage and even pasturage are much neglected: the staple commodities of the province are silk, wine, and oil; also a variety of rich fruits, such as oranges, figs, almonds, dates, and pomegranates. — On the whole, the temporary detention of this young officer would not have been unpleasant, had it not been for the melancholy sight of repeated executions of *brigands*; men who, without originally meriting that title, had refused submission to the new government, and repaired to the woods and mountains, whence they sallied forth to commit depredations on the plains. He was not, however, long doomed to witness such scenes: fortunately for him, the existing refusal to exchange prisoners between the French and the English did not extend to this remote quarter; and, in March 1810, he and his comrades were sent by the French General to Messina, under a flag of truce, and exchanged for a similar number of prisoners in the hands of the British. — The narrative contains occasionally *minutiæ* fitter for a journal than a printed work, and records the state of the weather with all the precision of a sailor: but it bears evident marks of impartiality, and forms a very acceptable addition to our topographical notices of a tract of country which is seldom visited by travellers.

Art. 39. *A New Picture of Rome and its Environs*, in the Form of an Itinerary. By Marien Vasi, Member of the Etruscan Academy of Cortona, &c. With numerous Views, and a large Plan of Ancient and Modern Rome. 18mo. pp. 510. 12s. Half-bound. Leigh. 1818.

Of this very circumstantial description of Rome, the Italian original has been for some time known on the Continent, though the present is its first appearance in an English garb. The long list of remarkable edifices, squares, arches, and other antiquities, or works of art at Rome, is portioned out into eight divisions, each part being to the traveller the computed employment of a day. The book is ornamented with neat engravings of all the principal buildings and monuments, such as the churches of St. Peter, St. Paul, and Santa Maria; the Piazza del Popolo, the Colosseum, the Arco di Constantino, Arco di Tito, Fontana di Trevi, the Colonna Trajana, &c., and it has at the end a plan of the city on a large scale. No object of interest appears to be omitted: the descriptions are given in clear and unaffected language; and the environs of the city, such as Tivoli, Frascati, &c. are added at the close of the volume: so that, on the whole, this appears to be a convenient manual to travellers who extend their peregrinations to the antient metropolis of the world.

Art. 40. *Enchiridion Romæ*; or, Manual of detached Remarks on the Buildings, Pictures, Statues, Inscriptions, &c. of Ancient and Modern Rome. By S. Weston, F.R.S. S.A. 12mo. pp. 191. 5s. 6d. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

Mr. Weston

Mr. Weston has here given a description of Rome on a much smaller scale than that of the work just mentioned; noticing, indeed, almost every thing that is remarkable in that city, whether in the way of relics of antiquity or specimens of modern art, but wanting the essential accompaniments of an outline of the streets, and plates of the principal edifices. Mr. W. begins with an account of St. Peter's and the Vatican; after which he takes his reader successively to the Palatine hill, the arch of Constantine, the Forum, and the Capitol, without omitting the hazards of the Tarpeian rock, or the remarkable monument of antique architecture exhibited by the Cloaca Maxima. The mouth of this large drain, though erected in the early ages of Rome, is yet standing, and amply confirms the description of Strabo, "that it was large enough to admit waggons loaded with hay." The author also describes the baths of Dioclesian, of Titus, and of Caracalla; the Appian way; the Catacombs; the Pantheon; the Papal Palace; the Villa Borghese; the Palazzo Barberini, &c. At the end are added notes by Mr. Holwell Carr, a personal friend of Mr. W.; containing an account of the disposal of a number of the most valuable pictures of Rome, part of which have been purchased by English gentlemen, and are now in this country; while another part, after having been transferred for a number of years to Paris, were restored to Rome after the second entrance of the allied troops into the French capital.

Art. 41. *New View of Society*: Tracts relative to this Subject; viz. Proposals for raising a Colledge of Industry of all useful Trades and Husbandry. By John Bellers. (Re-printed from the Original, published in the Year 1696.) — *Report to the Committee of the Association for the Relief of the Manufacturing and Labouring Poor.* — *A Brief Sketch of the Religious Society of People called Shakers.* With an Account of the Public Proceedings connected with the Subject, which took Place in London in July and August, 1817. Published by Robert Owen. 8vo. pp. 168. Longman and Co. 1818.

Mr. Owen, having failed in his first attempts to interest an association in the support of his plans, determined that the public shall, in any event, be unable to plead ignorance of his views, and has accordingly collected into one pamphlet the different tracts enumerated in the title-page. The first, published by J. Bellers in the reign of King William, partakes of his own plans as far as they regard a collective settlement of individuals labouring on a system of mutual co-operation; and the author has a decided advantage over Mr. Owen in the perspicuity of his style, for he deals in no vague generalities, but brings his matter clearly and pointedly before his reader. We find here various observations, particularly (p. 27.) about education, that would do credit to a more enlightened age than that of King William; and which, when we view them in connection with the admonitions of Locke on the same subject, awaken a painful sensation relative to the years or rather ages that are allowed to pass without the practical introduction of improvement. The substance of Mr. Bellers's arguments is

is that a number of persons, living together on the plan proposed, could render the result of their industry much more effectual by giving almost their whole time to productive labour; saving much of what is at present lost in domestic arrangements, such as going to market, bargaining, cooking, fetching work, &c. &c.

The sketch of the society called *Shakers* was communicated by a Quaker in the United States, where that sect is established. They emigrated from England nearly half a century ago, and took up their abode first in the neighbourhood of Albany, where they at present have two villages or rather towns, and afterward extended their settlements also in the direction of Kentucky. Those of our readers who have seen in late accounts of travels in the Western States a notice of the village of Harmony, in the vicinity of Mr. Birkbeck, will be prepared to form an idea of this singular community; among whom the sexes live separate, marriage being accounted unlawful, and the numbers being kept up only by the introduction of new members from the public at large. Whatever may be the good qualities of this sect, with regard to cleanliness, economy, or integrity, the line of separation between them and the rest of the world is marked by so repulsive a peculiarity, that Mr. Owen would have acted wisely in excluding this report of their settlement from his collection of documents. He is far from concurring in their extraordinary notions, but could not, apparently, prevail on himself to pass over a successful exemplification of his favourite plan of making the poor live in communities, where labour is carried on for a conjunct account.

The rest of the pamphlet consists of the reports, notices, and explanations given by Mr. Owen nearly two years ago, when his projects engaged the attention of the metropolis: it contains little that is new, and is, in fact, nothing more than a collection and preservation of pieces that might otherwise be lost, owing to the fugitive mode of publishing them in news-papers and detached sheets. Of these pieces, one of the most interesting is a short biographical notice of Mr. O., given by himself; which relates that he was born in Montgomeryshire in 1771; that, having received the rudiments of education, he was employed in making machinery and spinning cotton; and that he afterward managed spinning establishments at Manchester, but has lived during the last twenty years at New Lanark, near Glasgow, as manager and principal proprietor of the works in that populous village. The chief occupation there is the making of cotton-thread: but New Lanark contains also founders, smiths, millwrights, carpenters, glaziers, &c., who form on the whole a very mixed society. The great improvement introduced by Mr. Owen, into the morals and industry of these once unprincipled villagers, has always appeared to us to constitute his chief claim to the attention of the public; his propositions of new establishments being liable to various objections, and expressed in language (see our Number for November, 1813,) too loose and undefined to convey a distinct impression to the reader. He has not, moreover, been careful to exclude (see pp. 74. 77.) expressions of indifference to religion, which cannot fail to deprive him

him of the support of a great proportion of the benevolent part of the community, and which have perhaps been the chief obstacle to the formation of funds necessary for making an experiment on a large scale. We are strongly impressed with the advantage, both in economy and increased income, that might arise from the poor carrying on their work on an united plan: but we should be inclined to leave such undertakings to associations of individuals, avoiding all interference on the part of government, and still more that singular proposition of throwing the earnings of each into a common fund.

Art. 42. *Remarks on the Practicability of Mr. Owen's Plan to improve the Condition of the Lower Classes.* 8vo. 2s. Leigh. 1819.

Although this little tract discovers extensive reading, and a familiarity with sound views, it is unluckily not put together with sufficient connection to make much impression on the public. The author, too fond of dealing in generals, and of making long quotations from Professor Dugald Stewart and others, advances to his 20th page without even mentioning the name of Owen, or touching on that which is the proper object of his pamphlet. He cites (p. 23.) the example of two farms in the county of Kent which are managed on a parish-account, and infers that, if such a concern as a farm can be kept up without loss, the chances are much more in favour of a well arranged settlement on the plan of Mr. Owen's villages. He combats Mr. Malthus's theory on population, and alleges that no analogy with regard to progressive increase can exist between our reasoning species and the brute creation: nor is there even much correspondence between man in a savage and man in a civilized state, the former experiencing distress in consequence not of a physical impracticability to create food, but of ignorance in the arts of husbandry. At present, a great part of our inconvenience arises from superfluity of manufacturing produce; individuals being enabled, by the aid of machinery, to create more than can be consumed. 'A printing press (p. 80.) has lately been invented, by the use of which seven-eighths of human labour are saved. By machines, now in very general use in the manufacture of paper, the labour of one man yields as much as that of ten upon the former mode. Leather, woollens, cottons, and almost every article of wearing apparel, are now made by machinery.'

In the latter half of the pamphlet, the writer proceeds to reason on the effect of education, and to insist that Mr. Owen has not over-rated the surprising consequences that would ensue from a radical reform in this grand point. His arguments on this head (p. 46.) are intitled to considerable attention, particularly when corroborated by so gratifying an example of practical improvement as that which is exhibited in the account of Fellenberg's establishment at Hofwyl in Swisserland, delivered some time ago by Mr. Brougham to the parliamentary committee on the education of the poor. In short, we should have been enabled to close our notice of this tract without animadversion, were not the writer an advocate for the inadvisable plan (recommended by Mr. Owen) of throw-

throwing the returns of labour into a common stock; and did he not go the length of supporting this curious project (pp. 64, 65.) by an appeal to the laws of Lycurgus and other antiquated authorities.

Art. 43. *Objections to Mr. Brougham's Bill, for inquiring into Abuses in Charitable Donations**, with a Proposal for introducing a System into the Management of those Funds that shall prevent and detect future Abuses, and preserve the Property from Loss or Diminution. By Francis Charles Parry, Esq. A. M. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Andersons. 1819.

We shall not stay to notice Mr. Parry's objections to Mr. Brougham's Bill, which arise principally from his thinking that it would be a dilatory and expensive measure, and would not provide a remedy for any of the abuses which it might expose, but shall present our readers with the heads of Mr. P.'s offered improvement. He proposes to 'treat the charities throughout the kingdom (or throughout any county, or any district comprising two or more counties,) as one great estate, in the rents and revenues of which divers persons would have different rights and interests: and considering them in this light, the same system which would be proper to be pursued for the management of a large estate, scattered over a wide extent of country in detached parcels, and consisting of different tenures, and different species of property, would be also proper for the charities. In such a description of estate, the preservation of title-deeds would be of vital importance.' He suggests, therefore, that all title-deeds, and evidences of every description, should be deposited in some one known and secure place, to which all persons should have access at reasonable times, copies of all papers being left with trustees for their guidance. In cases in which the title to charitable funds was involved with that of private property, attested extracts might be deposited; or the parties interested might be allowed to discharge their estates by settling other lands, &c.; the deeds relating to which exchange would be then placed in the proposed registry: — the documents thus collected to be properly arranged, and kept secure from damp and other injuries.

The next point is to provide for *the due administration* of these charitable funds; to effect which end, Mr. Parry proposes that the trustees or other persons distributing any donation should annually send in a minute and methodical return, which should be filed with the other records, together with the proper receipts and vouchers; and he limits all proceedings against trustees, for improper application of the funds, to the period of three months after such annual accounts have been filed. The last proposition is that, in case of the extinction of trustees by death or other causes, by which the loss of property is often risked, the property should become vested in the *registrar* of this depository, who should transfer it to new trustees for the purposes of the donor's will.

* This phrase is scarcely intelligible: it should rather be "into abuses in the application of charitable donations."

Without entering into the detail of regulation, it appears to us that sufficient good sense is manifested in this plan to encourage those who are engaged in the subject to take it into serious consideration. Objections to it may on farther investigation occur: but at present it seems calculated to protect and preserve valuable records, which are too often exposed to injury and destruction; to allay doubts and suspicions, always existing against concealed accounts; and to give a satisfactory *quietus* to the honest trustee.

CORRESPONDENCE.

' To the EDITOR of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

' Sir,

' I have now, and always have had, a very great respect for the learning, talents, and indeed genius, displayed in the conduct of the Monthly Review; I have, also, an equal respect for its general accuracy and liberality. Having this unaffected feeling, I trust you will do me an essential act of reparation; viz. that of contradicting the statement in your last Number, p. 96., of my being the Author of the *TIMES*. What authority you had for such an assertion I know not; but of this you may rest decidedly assured, that I not only never wrote that work, but that *I never read it; nor indeed did I ever see it.*

' With respect to my claim to the rank of a dramatic poet, I shall say nothing. The time *will* come, I am confident, when ample justice will be done to a man, more injured than the world will ever know. Posterity is always just. Hitherto I have observed in silence various criticisms, in newspapers and in pamphlets; but as those criticisms bore internal evidence that they proceeded from persons totally incapable of giving permanent fame, and equally incapable of taking it away; I, of course, bore them without having any occasion for the exercise of philosophy: leaving the result to the unbiassed judgment of the more enlightened portion of the public; but I cannot consent to have works attributed to me, which I never saw.

' I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

' CHARLES BUCKE,

' London, June 23. 1819.

' *Author of the Italians.*'

The idea that Mr. Bucke was the writer of the *Times* came to us in such various ways, that we felt no hesitation in repeating the statement: but, in course, we can neither demur to Mr. B.'s authority for the contradiction, nor to his request for the promulgation of it.

Lector may be assured that as much care is taken, with regard to the object of his note, as the hurried circumstances of publication will allow: but his hint shall be the basis of another hint to the parties concerned.

* * The APPENDIX to the last Vol. of the M. R. was published on the 1st of June, with the Number for May.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1819.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the Public and Private Life of the Right Honourable Richard Brinsley Sheridan*, with a particular Account of his Family and Connexions. By John Watkins, LL.D. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 360. and 398. 3l. 3s. Boards. Colburn.

Few periods of our parliamentary history have been richer in brilliant orators than the American war and the æra of the French revolution; the eloquence of Burke having served as the middle link between Lord Chatham on the one hand, and Fox, the late Mr. Pitt, and Sheridan on the other. The public possess both biographical memoirs and the substance of the principal speeches of all these distinguished senators, with the exception of Sheridan, on whom Dr. Watkins has undertaken to bestow this tribute of national regard; and to whom another testimony, we understand, will shortly be paid by Mr. Moore, the translator of Anacreon, no doubt with more brilliancy of effect, and more fervor of attachment, patriotic and political: whether with more justice, we cannot undertake to prognosticate. In performing his task, the Doctor gives his readers an assurance that he has spared no pains in examining printed authorities, and that he has likewise had access to a number of family-papers: an advantage particularly necessary in the case of Sheridan; who, in addition to his parliamentary exertions, had, from his connection with the drama, a very considerable share of private business. The author adds farther that he has executed his duty with strict impartiality; a course which, as we shall soon have occasion to shew, he is likely to be considered, by the admirers of Mr. Sheridan, as having at least carried to a rigorous extreme: while all readers must object to his prolixity, of which he gives a striking proof in the outset of the work, filling above 100 quarto pages with the memoirs of Mr. S.'s grandfather and father. The former was an intimate acquaintance of Swift, and might have derived a comfortable support for his family from keeping in Dublin a classical seminary on a large scale, had he not frustrated the fairest hopes by an incurable versatility. This unfortunate

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disposition was equally conspicuous in the conduct of his son; who was brought up to the stage, and received with considerable favour both in Dublin and London, but was perpetually turning aside into schemes unconnected with his profession; having made himself known not only as the author of *Lectures on Elocution* and of a *Pronouncing Dictionary*, but as an ardent advocate for an altered system of education. He was thus perpetually involved in debt, and obliged to change his residence not only from Ireland to England, but from England to France.

Richard Brinsley was the second son of this literary speculator, and was born in Dublin in 1751. His early education was managed by his mother, a woman of great merit; and, in his twelfth year, he was sent to Harrow: where, with much aptitude for prompt acquisition, he was remarkable for no small share of that indolence which in after-life so materially clouded the display of his talents. Dr. Parr, at that time a junior teacher in the school, is said to have quickly perceived his powers, and to have exerted himself to draw them forth: but the Doctor's removal to Cambridge took place soon afterward, and was followed by a more severe and affecting loss to young Sheridan, the death of his mother. He was thus early left to provide for himself: his father, full of his new scheme of education, contemplating no other line for his sons than the management of academies; — an employment which would never have accorded with the buoyant spirits and shining talents of Richard. The first remarkable event in the life of the latter was an attachment to Miss Linley; who at an early age was the admiration of Bath for her beauty and musical accomplishments; and whose friends opposed a connection which offered so little prospect of comfort. The marriage, however, took place clandestinely: which gave rise to unpleasant rumours, and to a sanguinary though not fatal duel between Mr. S. and a Captain Mathews, who had been chiefly instrumental in the circulation of these reports. Some time afterward, viz. in 1773, Mr. S. was entered a member of the Middle Temple, less with an intention of following up the law, (for he was never called to the bar,) than of satisfying his wife's relations that he was not without the prospect of a profession.

From the earliest period of his career, Sheridan exhibited a singular inattention to the value of money, and made it a point to withhold his wife from the public exhibition of her talent, though the rate of his expenditure rendered a large income indispensable; his ambition, even at this time, being to entertain a wide circle of visitors. At last, he consented to a

compromise, and permitted his wife to have private concerts; a plan which produced a handsome return both in Bath and London: but, their expences requiring still an additional income, he determined to write for the stage. His first production, the comedy of *The Rivals*, was brought forwards at Covent-Garden in January, 1775, and was received, after a few retrenchments and improvements in the cast of the performance, with great approbation: but his grand introduction to public favour was the comic opera of *The Duenna*, which was acted with rapturous applause during 75 nights, being ten more than the run of the well known opera of Gay. His reputation was now established as a dramatic writer of the first class; and he became intimate not only with Burke, who was then in his meridian, but with the literary veterans who were shortly to be carried off the scene, Goldsmith, Garrick, Johnson, and Sir Joshua Reynolds. Circumstances soon led to Garrick's taking part in a transaction which afforded a proof of unusual confidence in his young friend; for, on his retiring from the direction at Drury-Lane, in June, 1776, Sheridan was admitted to a considerable share in the property and management of the theatre. Garrick was owner of half of the theatre, and sold it for 35,000*l.*; of which 15,000*l.* were made over to Ford, 10,000*l.* to Sheridan, and the same sum to Sheridan's brother-in-law, Linley. Sheridan, being at that time not less pressed by the *res angustæ* than in subsequent years, owed the acquisition of so considerable a share solely to the confidence of his friends in his talent for writing: the money was advanced principally by Ford. Under the guidance of Garrick, Sheridan proceeded to make improvements in several comedies, particularly *The Old Bachelor*, *The Way of the World*, and *Love for Love*; each of which he rendered extremely popular. In other plays, such as *The Tempest* and *The Relapse*, he was not equally fortunate: but the cloud that had begun, since Garrick's retirement, to overhang the theatre, was cleared away in the most brilliant manner before the end of the season, by the production of *The School for Scandal*, which was first acted on the 8th of May, 1777.

In 1778, Sheridan's interest in Drury-Lane acquired a great extension; his friends having purchased for him, at the price of nearly 40,000*l.* the remaining half of the theatre, and consigned the management to his father. The latter was by this time of more than mature age: but neither his temper nor the general character of his regulations was calculated to restore unanimity. Garrick died in January, 1779: Mr. Sheridan, senior, felt it necessary to withdraw from the management;

ment; and the affairs of the theatre became more and more embroiled. The younger Sheridan was not only devoted to company, and averse from the restraint of business, but was actuated, particularly in his younger years, by a romantic spirit of speculation; and it was this which led him first to grasp at so disproportionate a share of Drury-Lane, and even to join Mr. Harris in the purchase of the Opera-house, and then impelled him, while yet under the age of thirty, and overpowered by literary engagements, to aim at a seat in parliament. His intimacy with Burke and Fox naturally impressed him with opposition-principles, and the bad success of the American war seemed likely to open the gates of office to the leaders of that side. His vivacity, his readiness at repartee, and his fluency on various topics, made him the delight of convivial parties: but these qualities occasioned the waste of many precious hours, and deprived him both of income and the means of adding to his stock of knowledge. His friends, however, thought that his ready elocution would render him an useful combatant in the House of Commons; and, after an unsuccessful attempt at the borough of Honiton, he prevailed at Stafford, and took his seat in parliament in the end of 1780, about the same time with Mr. Pitt. He soon bore a part in the principal debates, and, on the resignation of Lord North in the spring of 1782, he came into office under Lord Rockingham as one of the Under Secretaries of State: but the death of this nobleman having soon caused a change of ministry, Mr. S. fell again into the opposition-ranks, and took an active share in the schemes for parliamentary reform. Mr. Pitt being now Chancellor of the Exchequer, under Lord Shelburne, and attracting much attention by his powers as a debater, Mr. S. evidently sought opportunities of coming into contact with his youthful opponent, and, if he could not baffle him in argument, was certainly his equal in repartee. In a debate on the pending negotiations for peace in February, 1783, both sides manifested considerable personality, and Mr. Pitt made a pointed allusion to Sheridan's dramatic connections.

"No man," said he, "admired more than he did the abilities of the honourable gentleman, the elegant sallies of his thought, the gay effusions of his fancy, his dramatic turns, his epigrammatic points; and if they were reserved for the proper stage, they would no doubt receive what the honourable gentleman's abilities always did receive — the plaudits of the audience; and it would be his fortune, *sui plausu gaudere theatri*. But this was not the proper scene for the exhibition of these elegancies." —

Mr. Sheridan, in explanation, adverted in a forcible manner to this personality, saying, "he need not comment on it, as the propriety,

propriety, the taste, and the gentlemanly point of it, must have been obvious to the house. But," added he, "let me assure the right honourable gentleman, that I do now, and will at any time when he chuses to repeat this sort of allusion, meet it with the most sincere good-humour; nay, — I will say more: — flattered and encouraged by the right honourable gentleman's panegyric on my talents, if ever I again engage in the composition he alludes to, I may be tempted to an act of presumption, to attempt, with an improvement, on one of Ben Jonson's best characters, that of the *angry boy* in the *Alchymist*."

' This reciprocity of sarcastic ridicule occasioned much sport at the period; and the whimsical application of Sheridan's dramatic reading fixed upon his opponent an appellation which he did not get rid of for many years.'

The coalition between Lord North and Mr. Fox having driven Lord Shelburne from the helm, Mr. S. came again into office in April, 1783, as one of the secretaries of the Treasury; and he continued in that situation until the failure of Mr. Fox's well known India-bill enabled the royal advisers to dismiss the ministers, and soon afterward to dissolve the parliament. In spite of the unpopularity caused by the coalition, Mr. S. was again returned for Stafford, and renewed his parliamentary conflicts with Mr. Pitt; which, however, claim little attention when compared with the reputation which he acquired in the early part of the proceedings against Mr. Hastings. They began in the House of Commons in April, 1786; and Mr. S., being chosen by the managers of the prosecution to bring forwards, in the next session, the charge relative to the case of the Begums or Princesses of Oude, found in the pathetic circumstances of this part of the impeachment an ample field for the display of his oratory. Nothing could surpass the effect of his celebrated speech on this subject, 7th February, 1787; a speech which lasted above five hours, and made such an impression as to call forth first repeated plaudits, and immediately afterward a motion for adjournment, that the "members might have time to collect their scattered senses, and exercise a sober judgment when removed from the spell of the magician."

' Mr. Burke declared it to be "the most astonishing effort of eloquence, argument, and wit united, of which there was any record or tradition." Mr. Fox was not behind-hand with the leader of the impeachment in the measure of his panegyric; for he said, "All that he had ever heard, all that he had ever read, when compared with it, dwindled into nothing, and vanished like vapour before the sun." Even Mr. Pitt is reported to have acknowledged "that it surpassed all the eloquence of ancient or modern

modern times, and possessed every thing that genius or art could furnish to agitate and controul the human mind."

The eloquence of the accusers of Mr. Hastings, and the partial support of Mr. Pitt, having led a majority of the house to vote charges of impeachment against that late Governor-general, the next display of the talents of the leading managers took place before the peers assembled in Westminster Hall. Here Mr. Sheridan's oratorical reputation was carried to the highest pitch by his speech of 13 June, 1788: language itself seemed too poor to furnish adequate expressions for the exuberance of his mind; and the picture of the sufferings of the aged Princess of Oude was wrought up with magical effect. "This day," said Mr. Burke, "has Mr. Sheridan made a display of talents unparalleled in the annals of oratory, and amazed the thousands who hung with rapture on his accents."

The second volume of this work contains very little of the private life of Sheridan, whose attention was now almost wholly engrossed by parliamentary business. The King's illness in 1788 appeared at last to hold out a prospect of office to him and his co-adjutors: but their imprudent assertion of the right of the Prince to step into the immediate and uncontrolled exercise of the royal power was injurious to their cause, and proved not the most inconsiderable of the means which enabled Mr. Pitt to preserve a majority in parliament until the King's recovery. The next grand political question was the French revolution, in which Sheridan for a time took part with Mr. Fox, both dissenting from their hitherto venerated colleague Burke. The difference between the latter and Sheridan attracted the public attention less, but it was of earlier date, and perhaps of deeper foundation, than the celebrated rupture between Burke and Fox. Our armament against Russia in 1790, the debates on the finances, and the discussions on parliamentary reform, all furnished favourable occasions for the exertion of Sheridan's elocution. In the end of 1792, when war with revolutionary France was deemed inevitable by the ministry, and when Mr. Fox almost alone ventured to recommend the measure of sending an ambassador to the Jacobins who ruled Paris, Sheridan gave a cordial support to his political leader; treating with ridicule the addresses of the French to their partisans in England, and contending that there was no sufficient cause for plunging the nation into hostilities. The death of Louis XVI., the subsequent overthrow of the most distinguished men in France, and the final

final horrors of the reign of Jacobinism, unfortunately concurred to give popularity to the contest, and to invest with an appearance of necessity that which many judicious men regarded at first as a needless and unfortunate rupture. At last, however, the separate pacification of Austria, and the open threat of invading this country with an overpowering force, united in the cause those who had originally been most adverse to it, and among others Mr. Sheridan; who, at the time of the unfortunate mutiny in the fleet in 1797, took a decided part with government, and, some time afterward, gave no slight stimulus to the patriotic sentiments of the day by his tragedy of *Pizarro*. On other questions, however, he continued hostile to the ministry, and in none more than in the grand discussions relative to the union with Ireland. Of Bonaparte, he at first thought favourably: but the restless and aggrandising spirit betrayed by him in the year of peace (1802) effectually undeceived Mr. Sheridan, and gave rise to some of his finest parliamentary effusions.

‘ Though in the tablet and volume of his mind there may be some marginal note about cashiering the King of Etruria, yet the whole text is occupied with the destruction of England. This is the first vision that breaks upon him through the gleam of the morning; this is his last prayer at night, to whatever deity he addresses it, whether to Jupiter or Mahomet; to the goddess of battles or the goddess of reason.’ —

‘ He says he is an instrument in the hands of Providence; that he is an envoy of God. He says he is an instrument in the hands of Providence to restore Switzerland to happiness, and to elevate Italy to splendour and importance. I think he is an instrument in the hands of Providence to make the English love their constitution the better; to cling to it with more fondness; to hang round it with greater tenderness.’

On the formation of the Fox and Grenville ministry, in February, 1806, Mr. Sheridan was evidently intitled to a place of emolument; although his careless habits made it altogether undesirable to introduce him into the cabinet. Mr. Fox is said to have advised him to accept a patent place, as affording him an income that would be secure in any event: but this he declined, less perhaps from a confidence in the permanency of the new ministry than from a dread of the odium that might have attended such a choice. We pass over his election for Westminster in 1806, and his failure in the succeeding summer, when a change of ministers led to a dissolution of parliament. He was then returned for Ilchester, and was one of those who raised their voice in the house against the expedition to Copenhagen:

but his brilliant day was now beginning to pass: he was drawing to his sixtieth year; and a constitution naturally strong had been much shaken by incessant irregularities. The assassination of Mr. Perceval in the spring of 1812 led to a proposition, real or ostensible, for the introduction of the Opposition into office, and Mr. S. has been loudly blamed for secretly attempting to counteract the prospects of his political associates: but we have no room to dwell on this mysterious part of our politics, particularly as, at the general election which ensued, Mr. S. was excluded from parliament. His circumstances now became more embarrassed than ever: his health declined rapidly; and it was only in an occasional effusion of convivial wit that it was possible to recognize the last star of the most brilliant constellation of British orators.

Mr. Sheridan's death took place on the 7th of July, 1816, in his 65th year: he had been twice married, having lost his first wife in 1792: his second, the present widow, was Miss Ogle, daughter of the Dean of Winchester: who had the precaution both to settle her portion on herself and children, and to prevail on Sheridan to set apart a farther sum from the sale of shares in the theatre: this formed their chief resource in his latter years, and is now a provision for his only surviving son.

The habitual imprudence of this distinguished character is perfectly familiar to our readers, and it is needless to enlarge on the endless disappointments which it brought on him in political as well as in private life: but the extent of his early errors, through vacillation and speculative ardour, are less generally known. No one could have a more favourable introduction into the highest departments of the drama. We have seen that, aided by the councils of Garrick, and supported by monied friends, Sheridan became, before his 28th year, almost sole proprietor of our greatest theatre, and was required to attend only to the higher departments of the concern, the choice of managers and the preparation of new pieces; of detail of every kind, whether relative to the actors or the expences of the theatre, he was wholly independent. This fair prospect he marred by an impatience to figure in a sphere which was not only entirely different from his proper line, but already occupied by men of the first ability. His effusions of eloquence on Mr. Hastings's trial (1787 and 1788) have been surpassed by no orator of the same standing in parliament: but on no future occasion did he rise to the grandeur of these displays. His whole career, indeed, furnished a distressing proof of native talent impeded by a want of culture; illustrating both

both the drama and the senate for a season, but falling into the shade at the time when continued exertion would have brought it forth in augmented splendor. How different is this from the account which we had occasion to render some years ago (*M. R.* vol. lxxx.) of the progress of Gibbon; whose uncertainty and change of plan lasted only until he had fixed on an adequate object; and who, when once thoroughly engaged, retired from parliament and the attractions of a town-life, to dedicate himself with unremitted application to the completion of a permanent monument of fame.

On the more culpable irregularities of Sheridan, we decline to enlarge: but every reader of sensibility will be concerned to learn that even Mr. Fox had latterly conceived (*vol. ii.* p. 340.) an aversion to his visits. Of his carelessness, the public have heard many anecdotes, but none could be more striking than an admission made by himself in a Chancery-suit connected with the theatre; in which (*vol. ii.* p. 312.) he acknowledged that a letter from the Duke of Bedford's solicitor had lain for twelve months unopened among his papers. Similar negligence was evinced in the spring of 1799, when the tragedy of *Pizarro* was in preparation for Drury-Lane. The original play of Kotzebue was intitled *The Spaniards in Peru*; and a bad translation of it, having been shewn to Sheridan early in the season, was immediately adopted by him as the basis of an improved drama. This intention coming to the knowledge of a person acquainted with the German language, a new translation was commenced by him, and notice sent to Sheridan that, unless the sum of 100*l.* was paid, it would be continued and printed. Sheridan, aware that a previous publication would greatly injure the success of the piece, complied with this unhandsome proposition, and paid the money, but still proceeded slowly with his task. Soon afterward, a friend informed him that Mrs. Plumptre had been engaged to translate a series of Kotzebue's plays, and among others *The Spaniards in Peru*: and the MS. of the translation was shewn to a mutual friend, who prevailed on Mrs. P. to write a note to Mr. S., stating that, according to her previous agreement with the bookseller, the translation would be published in about six weeks, unless Mr. S. wished for a longer delay.

' A month elapsing without Mrs. Plumptre's hearing any thing more, she naturally concluded that Mr. Sheridan was grown indifferent upon the subject, and the translation was printed, when, two days before it was to be published, he made his proposed visit. He was full of apologies for not having sooner paid attention

tion to her note, but said the truth was, that he had only read it the day before. "All the notes and letters I receive," he said, "are thrown into a bag, and I read them when I am at leisure. It so happened that a longer period than usual elapsed without my looking them over; but yesterday, when I went into the country, I took the bag with me, read the letters in the carriage, and there I found your note."

Fortunately, in this case there was no unhandsome intention, and the publication of the translation was postponed.

It has often happened to celebrated orators to lower themselves in the scale of reputation by venturing to appeal to the public in print: but such was not the fate of Sheridan, whose printed compositions were eminently successful, because they were works of imagination, and in no way dependent on extent of research. His erudition, if we except the classics and English poetry, was very limited: in the transaction just mentioned, he begged from Mrs. Plumptre a copy of her translation, 'as he was much perplexed with those he had,' and was quite unacquainted with German. "Indeed," he said, (vol. ii. p. 296.) "I know nothing of modern languages: I can with difficulty puzzle out a sentence of French by the help of a grammar and dictionary." It was some years previous to this (in 1796) that an attempt was made by Mr. Ireland to impose on the public the MS. of *Vortigern* as a genuine production of Shakspeare. Sheridan, after a slight inspection of the papers, agreed to purchase the play for the theatre; and it is amusing to observe the impressions of a mind so penetrating and judicious, but too indolent to make that thorough investigation which the importance of the matter required.

'Previous to the signing of the agreement, he and Richardson went to inspect the fair copy of the play which had been made from the manuscript. After perusing several pages, Mr. Sheridan came to one line which was not strictly correct, upon which, turning to Mr. Ireland, he remarked, "This is rather strange; for though you are acquainted with my opinion as to Shakspeare, yet, be it as it may, he certainly always wrote poetry." Having perused a few pages further, he again paused, and laying down the manuscript, spoke to the following effect: "There are certainly some bold ideas; but they are crude and undigested. It is very odd; one would think that Shakspeare must have been very young when he wrote the play. As to the doubting whether it be really his, or not, who can possibly look at the papers and not believe them ancient?"'

After these various anecdotes and observations on Sheridan, we must close our report by a few remarks on his biographer. It has been often remarked that the task of writing a life has

has a strong tendency to inspire the narrator with partiality, and is the cause of the public being so largely supplied with biographical panegyrics: but such is certainly not the case with Dr. Watkins; who, at one time cold and at another time hostile to Mr. S., runs the risk of being suspected by the ardent friends of the orator to have undertaken the task with a view to depreciate his reputation. We can scarcely turn to a chapter in the second volume that does not contain charges not only of imprudence but of intemperance, vehemence, and inconsistency: in short, almost the only passages, in which the biographer deigns to bestow an approving epithet, are those in which Mr. S. is represented as differing from his Opposition-friends, and giving (vol. ii. p. 317.) a temporary support to government. If it were not to be wished that the life of Sheridan should be written by an Oppositionist, Dr. W. is evidently in the contrary extreme; being adverse to all the points for which Sheridan contended most eagerly; viz. the emancipation of the Irish Catholics, a reform in parliament, and the maintenance of peace with the French revolutionists. In his ardour for the ministerial cause, Dr. W. very good naturedly takes it for granted (vol. ii. pp. 120. 247.) that Mr. John Reeves, and other declamatory members of the loyal associations in 1793, were influenced by no private calculation, but were actually hurried by patriotic zeal into that course which so soon led them into offices under government. In several parts of the book, (such as vol. ii. p. 170.) we have much irrelevant matter; in others, (vol. ii. p. 126.) a strange obscurity in the expression: but the great faults of Dr. W. are diffuseness and want of discrimination. Instead of selecting the leading points of his subject, and rigorously excluding all subordinate matter, he has spoken more or less of almost every debate in which Sheridan took a part; so that nothing is exhibited in a forcible light, and the reader rises from the perusal without any distinct preference of one part of his speeches to another. — The decorations of the volume consist of three engravings; the first, a portrait of Mr. Sheridan from a painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds; and the others being portraits of his first and his second lady.

ART. II. *A Tour through Sicily, in the Year 1815.* By George Russell, of His Majesty's Office of Works. Illustrated by a Map and Eighteen interesting Plans and Views. 8vo. pp. 289. 1s. 1s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1819.

THE long occupation of Sicily by our troops, during the late war, gave rise to several publications both on the political and the moral state of that interesting island. One
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of the first of these was Mr. Leckie's survey of its constitution, introduced in our Number for July, 1809; and in January, 1812, we had occasion to notice a statistical account of the island, translated by Mr. Vaughan from a work by the Abbate Balsamo, Professor of Political Economy at Palermo. These grave productions were followed by the sprightly but superficial comments of Mr. Galt, (M. R. August, 1813,) and by remarks of a more comprehensive cast from the pen of Mr. E. Blaquiere, which were reported in our review for the succeeding January. Lastly, came "Observation on Sicily and its Inhabitants by Mr. W. H. Thompson," mentioned by us in June, 1814; since which the unrestricted access to the continent of Europe has in a great degree diverted the attention of our travelling countrymen from Sicily, and it was in some measure an accidental cause that directed the steps of Mr. Russell towards that island. This gentleman left England in the autumn of 1814, on account neither of business nor of pleasure but of bad health: he went first to Lisbon, and thence up the Mediterranean to Italy, where he passed some time at Rome: but he very properly declines any description of a city already delineated by so many travellers. In the end of March, 1815, the threatened approach of Murat and the Neapolitan troops induced him to forsake the antient metropolis of the world, and to seek in Sicily the means of pursuing his peregrinations secure from the alarms of war.

Mr. R. had the gratification of being accompanied in this tour by three intelligent Germans, whose attention was fortunately directed to similar objects of inquiry. This party made a comprehensive survey of the island: they landed at Palermo; and, after having passed some time in that populous capital, they travelled southward across the western part of Sicily until they reached Girgenti, (the antient Agrigentum,) which they surveyed at leisure: they then returned into the interior, and directed their attention to the eastern and more interesting half of Sicily; performing a journey from the centre of the island to Syracuse, a farther journey along the eastern coast to Catania, a visit to Etna, and finally a voyage along shore in the direction of Messina. We begin by an abstract of Mr. R.'s remarks on the antient capital of the island; a city which, on a future day, is not unlikely to regain a considerable share of its early importance.

Syracuse.—The description of this city by Cicero, in his well known oration against Verres, may still be consulted with great advantage; since, howsoever it has fallen in point of population, (which at present is only 16,000,) the great outlines of the antient city continue distinctly visible. Syracuse
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owed its increase and political importance to the excellence of its harbours; one of which is a basin nearly two miles in length, and above one in width, with an entrance sufficiently wide for navigation and sufficiently contracted for defence. This is the larger harbour: between it and the smaller is a spot of ground, insulated, but communicating with the main-land by a bridge, the streight that intervenes being very narrow. This island was called Ortygia by the antients; and, commanding by its position the access to both harbours, it was the residence first of the princes of Syracuse and afterward of the Roman prætors: at present, it is the only inhabited part of Syracuse. On the main-land, and extending over a much larger tract, was the portion called Acradina, which contained spacious streets and a number of public buildings: next to it was the populous quarter called Tyche; while farther inland stood a town of comparatively recent erection, thence called Neapolis. Finally, at the extremity of Syracuse towards the land, was a suburb on high ground called Epipolæ, containing an almost impregnable fortress. Though Syracuse in its greatest prosperity could not have contained above a sixth of the population of London, it is a remarkable fact that the space inclosed by its walls was equal to that which is occupied by our metropolis; being, according to Strabo, above 20 miles in circumference: an estimate which, however extraordinary, will be satisfactorily confirmed by a survey of the ground, and by the yet existing portions of the walls. How, it may be asked, was it possible to defend so wide a range, during three years, against a Roman force commanded by so enterprizing a General as Marcellus? The answer is that the armed population of Syracuse was numerous, and that ten miles of their wall had an additional defence, being surrounded by the sea and harbour: add to this, that on the land-side the localities were extremely favourable for resistance; that the Romans were very inadequately provided with the means of besieging; and that a solid wall afforded great security in ages when artillery was unknown. A considerable part of the wall built by Dionysius is yet standing, to the height of seven feet, and the masonry forms a solid mass nearly ten feet thick. On the sea-side, still exist remains of the old Greek fort which commanded the entrance to the harbour; and near this important spot is a modern castle, which was erected in the 11th century. In nothing is a traveller of the present day more disappointed than by the rivers or rather streams of antiquity. The Anapus, which flows into the harbour of Syracuse, is scarcely 70 feet wide, but, being deep and tranquil, is easily navigated by boats. Mr. Russell ascended it in this manner, and

and was struck with the beautiful foliage which covered its banks. Having proceeded half a mile, the boat was directed to the left, and rowed along the small but deep channel issuing from the fountain of Cyane, and remarkable for the growth of the papyrus. That beautiful plant is said to be spontaneously produced nowhere but here, and in the marshes formed by the overflowing of the Nile; it consists of stems or rushes of a triangular form, which rise from the bottom of the water, attain a height of 12 or 15 feet above the surface, and diminish in breadth as they ascend. The fountain of Cyane has a very copious flow of water, but this in no respect disturbs the tranquillity of its basin, which is capacious, having a diameter of 60 and a depth of 40 feet: it is situated at some distance from the city: but the still more celebrated fountain of Arethusa is within the walls, adjoins the mouth of the harbour of Syracuse, and is so near to the sea that its basin would at times be entered by the waves were it not protected by a mound of stone. This spring, being now the indiscriminate resort of the laundresses of the place, is seen to great disadvantage: but its discharge of water is such as to resemble the stream of a river, and to justify, in one respect at least, its mythological character of a continuation of the Alpheus.

The catacombs are another remarkable feature of Syracuse. They are of great extent, forming a subterraneous city, with a number of narrow streets, some of them above a mile in length: but the height is only seven or eight feet, the whole having been dug out for tombs, and begun evidently before the time of the Romans. The entrance to this gloomy labyrinth is through a convent, and the number of tombs and sepulchral chambers is very great. No object at Syracuse, however, is more deserving of the traveller's attention than the "speaking grotto," or, as it was called by the antients, the "ear of Dionysius;" a cave of 170 feet in length, from 20 to 35 in breadth, and 60 in height. Mr. R. made trial of the echo, and found it so strong that persons speaking in an under voice, or even tearing writing paper, in the grotto, were distinctly heard in a small chamber on the right of the highest point of the entrance; the same in which Dionysius is said to have concealed himself, that he might overhear the conversations of his prisoners. Nothing can be more melodious than a musical instrument played within this singular vault, while the discharge of fire-arms produces a noise like a long continued peal of thunder.

Ætna, — the grand attraction in a physical sense to the traveller in Sicily, — is described at considerable length by
Mr. Russell,

Mr. Russell, but in much less inviting colours than in the glowing pages of Brydone; who, our readers will be surprised to learn, is said (p. 220.) to have drawn largely on his imagination, and never to have ascended to the summit of the crater. The season in which the attempt was made by Mr. R. and his companions was favourable, being the end of May and the beginning of June. Leaving the populous and well built city of Catania, they began to ascend the lower part of the mountain, and travelled 12 miles to Nicolosi, the last village on this part of the ascent, and about 2700 feet above the level of the sea. Hence, after some repose, they departed in the evening, with the hope of reaching the summit (still distant 20 miles) in time to see the sun rise: but, when advanced to the region of frost and snow, the change of temperature proved too violent for an invalid, and the party were compelled to bring Mr. R. down the mountain to Nicolosi. The three Germans, accompanied by a guide, determined on a second attempt, and set out in the evening, still expecting to behold the rising sun from the summit of *Ætna*. The night was beautiful, the moon resplendent, and the smoke, undisturbed by wind, was seen to ascend perpendicularly out of the crater. Towards midnight, however, a cutting wind arose, followed by a furious storm: the thermometer fell below the 'freezing point; and in the morning the fog was too thick to admit of prosecuting the excursion to its conclusion. They proceeded to the *Casa Inglese*, a house lately constructed at the expense of British officers as a refuge from the frost and snow of this dreary region: but unluckily its door had been broken open by a party who arrived some days before from the other side of the mountain, and the building was full of snow and ice. The storm increased; and the travellers, finding themselves destitute of the means of recruiting their wearied spirits, were compelled to return a second time to Nicolosi, where they found some consolation in the hospitable attentions of Gemmellaro, the intendant and physician of the place. After having recovered their fatigue, they determined on a third attempt, to be made, not in the night, but when the sun-beams had mitigated the asperity of the wintry region. They set out from Nicolosi in the morning, traversed once more the long ascent, and, passing vast fields of snow, reached a tract covered with beds of yellow sulphur, and at last gained the summit or highest part of the side of the crater. The diameter of the crater is from 2000 to 3000 feet, and the descent inwards is a gradual slope: the travellers began to walk down, but were arrested, not by unevenness

in the ground, but by the suffocating atmosphere, the blasts of wind preventing the smoke that issued out of the volcanic opening from ascending perpendicularly. Proceeding, however, round to the side from which the wind blew, they enjoyed a most commanding and magnificent prospect, and saw as on a map the extensive province of Calabria on the one side, with almost the whole of Sicily on the other. The difference of temperature is distinctly expressed by the following memorandum, made on the 2d of June, the day of the last attempt.

	Hour.	Degrees of Fahrenheit.
At Nicolosi, - - - - -	8 A.M.	63
At the Grotto del Castelluccio, (a lava cavern,) five miles from the crater, -	12 (Noon)	56
At the Casa Inglese, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from the crater, - - - - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$ P.M.	32
At the summit or highest side of the crater, - - - - -	$3\frac{1}{2}$ P.M.	31

In the night, the degree of cold is much greater.

We have not room to enlarge on Mr. R.'s account of Girgenti, Messina, Taormina, and other places in Sicily; and we must conclude by a brief animadversion on other topics. The chief error of the author is a too easy admission of the exaggerations of antient writers with regard to the population of the cities of Sicily: Agrigentum he believes to have contained 800,000 inhabitants, and Syracuse 1,800,000! but we are unable to bestow much commendation on his work as a literary composition; its merit is confined to the portion of information which it conveys, and this fortunately is considerable, being the result, not of hearsay, but of the personal observation of the writer. The book is elegantly printed, and ornamented with 18 plans and views; the most useful of which are a map of the island, and topographical sketches of Girgenti, Syracuse, and the vicinity of *Ætna*.

ART. III. *Observations, Moral, Literary, and Antiquarian*, made during a Tour through the Pyrenees, South of France, Switzerland, the whole of Italy, and the Netherlands, in the Years 1814 and 1815. By John Milford, Jun., late of St. John's College, Cambridge. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 668. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THOUGH a juvenile writer, Mr. Milford has already appeared at the bar of our critical tribunal as author of a *Tour through Spain and Portugal*, under the title (M. R. vol.

vol. lxxxii.) of *Peninsular Sketches*, which we pronounced to be not undeserving of attention, though evidently marked by the inaccuracy of a youthful observer. He now comes before us in a more important character, as the writer of travels through Italy, Switzerland, part of France, and the Netherlands: but the remarks already passed on his first essay are applicable, on a larger scale, to the present; which contains occasionally new and animated pictures, while in other passages it must be allowed to be disfigured by a strain of levity that ought not to have found its way into this his more mature work.

Mr. M. entered the south of France with our army in the spring of 1814, and, after the abdication of Bonaparte, did not, like many other travellers, repair to Paris, but took the route of Toulouse, Montpellier, Nîmes, Marseilles, Avignon, and Lyons, to Geneva. From the latter he pursued the beaten track of a Swiss tour, visiting Chamouni, the Glaciers, and Mont Blanc; after which he proceeded to Piedmont, along the new road over Mont Cenis, and subsequently visited Turin, Genoa, Leghorn, Pisa, and Sienna. Having first received an ample account of these cities, we are next presented (vol. i. p. 253.) with a long description of Rome; which is followed, in the second volume, by an almost equally copious report of Naples and Mount Vesuvius. Mr. M. now directed his steps to the north, and performed his homeward journey by Florence, Bologna, Venice, Padua, Milan, and the beautiful lake of Como: from the latter, or rather from its less enchanting neighbour, Lago Maggiore, he repaired across the new road over Mount Simplicon to Switzerland; held on his course by Bern, Bâle, Heidelberg, Frankfort, and Liege; and returned to England after having visited the chief towns of the Netherlands. The extent of country thus surveyed exceeded the usual proportion of an English traveller's peregrinations; yet the whole was traversed in fifteen months; a rate of progress too rapid to enable an observer to make a deliberate estimate of the manners of the inhabitants. This tour accordingly, like many others, deserves attention chiefly for its report of external objects, such as the splendid remains of Roman architecture at Nîmes, and the magnificent but unfinished cathedral of Milan: though it is intitled to some regard, also, with respect to places comparatively little visited, of which we shall give an example in the account of

Sienna. — ‘On drawing near to *Sienna* the country wears a pleasing appearance, being highly cultivated, and very productive. The city is well situated, on three hills; and, with great justice, is accounted the second in the Grand Duke's territories: as a place

of residence, its situation, fertility of soil, climate, and, above all, the amiable characters and sociability of its inhabitants towards strangers, render it inferior to no city in Italy. But if the object of the traveller be principally antiquities, beaux arts, &c. he will not find here that scope for his pursuit which other places in Italy afford; but he will in some respects receive ample recompense by other interesting circumstances, which seem peculiar to Sienna. — The houses are of brick, the streets narrow, and paved with the same and flat stones, which in general render them extremely clean, although very dangerous for horses that are not accustomed to this sort of pavement.' —

'The piazza here is one of the principal attractions for strangers; it is a large space, well laid out in walks, and ornamented with statues. The rides around it are very pretty, and from five to six o'clock in the evening it has every appearance of Hyde Park in miniature. The Siennese are extremely fond of having elegant equipages, and here assemble in them; and each lady having endeavoured to obtain as many gentlemen in her suite as possible, then retires to the theatre.' —

'The society at Sienna is very excellent, and it requires but one introduction, which will soon produce a sufficient acquaintance with the whole of the inhabitants. Their manners are of the most pleasing description; and the ladies are certainly, as at Genoa, much devoted to gallantry. A young man who has no such connection is styled, ironically, *un stupido*, or an imbecile. There is, however, one quality to be remarked, possessed by the female sex, which few other cities can boast of; that is, a great love of literature, which is much cultivated.' — 'They have an academy here, and the Italian is spoken in its greatest purity.' —

'I should recommend Sienna for a person visiting Italy, to see the manners and customs, as a situation more likely to please him than any other place. This is not so general a residence for the English as many other cities in this country are, and which may be considered as an advantage rather than otherwise.

'The best society here is composed, as it is in most towns of the papal dominions, of a description of people unknown to us in England; namely, of the lower class of nobility, who inherit the houses, furniture, &c. down to the old clothes of their ancestors, and live in palaces with incomes varying from 3000l. to 30000l. a year. These good people have their servants all on board wages, and inhabit their apartments of splendour about once a month; but as for convivial meeting, or a good dinner, it is as rare amongst them as a black swan was at ancient Rome. In one point they ought to be happy, for the gratification of their utmost ambition or vanity is much more easily attained here than in most other countries. They have saints' days, religious processions and festivals, to which they look forward with as great pleasure as our ladies do to a grand *dejeuné*, or to a splendid ball and supper; and the only trouble of these modern Italians consists in dragging out the old heir looms and family coaches, in bedecking their servants and horses with rich embroidered

broidered liveries and harnesses; which on no other occasions are ever exposed to day-light, and in parading for three or four hours round the squares or streets of the town in which they live.'

Mr. Milford has evidently paid little attention to statistics, or he would not have fallen into such errors as to call the population of Amsterdam (vol. ii. p. 258.) only 150,000; or that of Brussels (p. 279.) only 50,000. Of the fault noticed in the outset of our report, we mean the occasional introduction of trifling matter, a specimen is afforded in the preface, in his account of the remarks of an old college-acquaintance; and soon afterward (p. 38.) in a prolonged description of a dog, the companion of his travels. Another, and by no means a trifling blemish, is the repeated occurrence of typographical errors in the case of proper names, such as (vol. i. p. 66.) Carcessone for Carcassone; p. 68. Beniers for Beziers; p. 228. Drouet for Drouot, a very different personage; and (vol. i. p. 10.) *le petit* for *la petite Angleterre*. We are inclined to visit with less severity a romantic feeling for Rousseau, particularly when excited by the scenery of such places as Chamberri or Clarens, the well known abodes of that excentric writer. In point of political feeling, Mr. M. is somewhat singular; cherishing at once an admiration for Bonaparte and a vehement antipathy against the French nation. Had he prolonged his stay in France, and gained leisure to observe the credulous but pacific disposition of that people, he would probably have reversed his opinion, and ascribed exclusively to the government the miseries inflicted on the different countries which he visited. His narrative is given in the form not of letters but of chapters, and at the end of each is a small vignette corresponding with the subject of the text. We conclude by extracting a passage written on leaving Italy, and containing a summary of the author's observations on that country.

With respect to the higher orders of society in Italy, consisting of the princes and nobility, though I was not particularly intimate with many of them, yet one circumstance appeared obvious, namely, that during the recent convulsions in Italy, wherein they have so often changed masters, and every succeeding one has squeezed them to the very core, by contributions, taxes, and plunder, they are generally become miserably poor; which effect is aided by the overbearing despotism of the church and government. Under such impressions, it is not surprising that the human mind should sink into a torpid state, and become indifferent to political and public events, which stimulate the higher orders in other countries. They appear to feel no inclination to obtain eminence wherein they have no influence: education re-

mains neglected; and their pursuits seem to be limited to a succession of intrigues, visits of ceremony, music, and more frivolous pursuits; as also to the usual observance of the forms of religion, proceeding more from a policy to keep well with the church, than from any principle or practice of morality.

'The middle classes of society in the Milanese, and the states of Tuscany and Venice, possess a degree of activity and industry, from which, under other governments, would result that independence and comfort we so justly boast of in our country. In the Roman and Neapolitan possessions, their habits of dissipation and depravity are close imitations of those of the higher orders. Literature, and cultivation of the mind appear totally neglected; if they can fill up the day by a routine of insipid visits, music, theatres, and coffee-houses, they appear perfectly contented. In the large towns, the Italians may be said to live in constant idleness, and to pass as little of their time in their own houses as do their late masters the French.'—

'With respect to the common people, who, in all countries, form the mass of society, it is difficult to make general observations on inhabitants living, as we may say, on such different soils and climates, and under such distinct governments as are found in Italy. The south of this country, in the direction of Rome, Naples, Calabria, &c. produces a more ignorant and depraved lower class of society than I have observed in any other part of Europe. All large cities, in every country, contain enough of the worst portion of the population; but Naples and Venice appeared to me to hold a larger proportion of this description than I have remarked in any other cities of equal extent. The cause cannot but rest with the governments under which they live. Nature has here produced, generally speaking, a fine athletic race of people; but with minds uncultivated by any education, and debased by ignorance, bigotry, and oppression.'—

'The luxuries of the table are not carried to that extent as to become charged among the vices of the modern Italians. Macaroni is in the daily bill of fare of most Italians, as the *olla podrida* is in Spain. Drunkenness is seldom or never seen, but held, by all orders of society, in the highest degree disgraceful. The Italian character possesses more of mildness and gaiety, than of the frivolous vanity and volatile disposition of a neighbouring nation; they are fond of the imposing pageantry of processions, operas, theatres, and every description of public exhibition; but above all, from the prince to the pauper, music is their favourite amusement, and all classes, from even infancy, acquire a surprising proficiency and taste in this enchanting science.'

These volumes are furnished with a Table of Contents, but have no Index.

ART. IV. *Outlines of Philosophical Education*, illustrated by the Method of teaching the Logic or First Class of Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. By George Jardine, A.M. F.R.S.E. Professor of Logic and Rhetoric in that University. 8vo. pp.485. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

THE name of Professor Jardine, though hitherto but little known to the public on this side of the Tweed, has been long and deservedly respected by those whose attention has been called to the state of education in the Universities of the north. To his persevering and laborious exertions, and in many respects very peculiar qualifications, as a public instructor, may in a great measure be ascribed the introduction of that system of inspection and constant examination, by which the University of Glasgow has obtained in Scotland an almost undisputed pre-eminence; not as the most favoured seat of science and literature, nor as adorned by any extraordinary constellation of exalted talents, but as being singularly adapted to unfold the opening powers of youth, and to inspire them with the desire of farther acquisitions. If the mere communication of knowledge were the sole purport of academical instruction, other places might justly boast of a longer list of celebrated names, and of professors and lecturers of higher reputation, if not of superior merit, in almost every department of science. He, however, who contents himself with effecting this object, as an instructor of youth, may be fairly charged with having neglected the most important and indispensable part of his office: which is not merely to demonstrate the doctrines and principles of a science, or to detail in a luminous and accurate statement the facts connected with his peculiar department, but to develop the powers of knowledge in the youthful mind, — to awaken the principle of curiosity and direct it in its proper channels, — to rouse the spirit of emulation, — and to indicate those paths of inquiry, in which, by personal investigation, the student may endeavor to attain the truth for himself, instead of implicitly receiving as her dictates the dogmas either of a professor or of a sect.

It has, indeed, been too frequently imagined that the mere attendance on a course of lectures is sufficient to give the student a competent knowledge of the principles of a science: but, even though it were admitted that this end might be thus accomplished, it will easily be perceived that the public teacher, who aims at nothing more, has performed only the smallest part of his task. The fact, however, is that no prejudice can be more erroneous; and it must appear evident on

the slightest consideration that the acquisition of any science, or system of truths speculative and practical, consisting of many propositions depending on each other, ought to be the result of much thought and careful examination on the part of the *student*: who should form them for himself, and not, as a lively writer has expressed it, have them poured into his vacant mind through the funnel of a lecture; — which, if it instil them without any labour of the recipient, will make it very little either better or worse; — or, if they flow in too copious a stream for its capacity, may endue it with an outside showy profusion, while the mind itself is left as empty as before. It is only an inconceivably small portion of any subject, of which a knowledge can be obtained by an attendance on the most comprehensive course of lectures. The proper object of such a course is to convey a general outline; to excite the attention of the young inquirer by presenting the subject in an interesting point of light; and to lay open to him those sources of original information, in which, by the suitable direction of his private studies, his curiosity may be farther gratified, and his knowledge rendered more accurate and complete. The service which a public lecturer performs, or ought to perform, for his pupils, is by no means to think and labour in their stead; all that he can do is to put them into the most proper way of thinking and labouring for themselves.

In the volume before us, we have first a short historical sketch of the system which assumed the title of the Aristotelian philosophy, (though in many respects it seems to have partaken very little of that eminent sage's spirit,) and which enjoyed such a long and undisputed reign in the Universities of Europe; and the author then details the successive alterations which were gradually introduced at Glasgow, both in the subjects of instruction and the mode in which that instruction was communicated. The first improvements arose in consequence of a *royal visitation* in the year 1727; and the impulse thus given was rendered more efficacious by the appointment to several of the most important chairs, of a series of very eminent men: among whom may be enumerated Hutcheson, Adam Smith, and Millar. The lectures, which had before been exclusively in the Latin tongue, now began to be delivered in English; a change that rendered still more obvious the unsuitable nature of those speculations, which had hitherto been presented to the young student at his first entrance on philosophical inquiries. It was soon perceived that these subjects, even when perfectly understood, had little or no connection with that species of

knowledge which was necessary to prepare him either for the speculative pursuits of science or for the active business of life. Indeed, the scholastic logic and metaphysics, even in the limited extent in which they are deserving of any share of attention from young men during the period of their academical education, are by no means well adapted to the usual tastes and capacities of youth at the commencement of their philosophical studies. We are therefore disposed to think that the reformation introduced by Mr. Jardine, in the conduct of what is still called the *Logic-class* at Glasgow, would have been more effectual and complete, if these speculations, which continue to form a part (though comparatively but a small part) of his course, had been excluded from it altogether; and not offered to the attention of the pupils till, at a more advanced period of their academical course, they had furnished themselves with a more extensive knowledge of facts, — of those particular objects from which the abstract conceptions of the metaphysician are drawn. The science of logic, when taken in its most extended sense, comprizing all that relates to the improvement of our modes of investigating truth and communicating it to others, appears to be a subject more fitted to occupy a place near the termination than at the beginning of a course of philosophical instruction. It constitutes an important branch of the philosophy of the human mind, considered with reference to its application to a valuable practical purpose; and therefore the study of it, to any advantage, seems to require a tolerably accurate previous acquaintance not only with the powers of the human understanding, but with moral, physical, and mathematical sciences in general, and with the various kinds and degrees of evidence of which these inquiries are susceptible. Almost all the leading topics, which are discussed in the second volume of Professor Stewart's *Elements*, ought to form a part of a course of logic; and on these the student of logic should be prepared to form a judgment. Now, whatever may be our opinion with respect to some of the doctrines maintained by this eminent writer, we think that no judicious teacher would deem it advisable to submit such speculations as these to a youth fresh from the forms of a grammar-school, and who must be presumed to be wholly unaccustomed to any species of philosophical inquiry.

With this exception, however, we do not perceive that the general tenor of the speculations, to which Professor Jardine directs the attention of his pupils, is liable to any material objection. He justly observes that knowledge, merely as such, is not the main purport of exertion at the commencement of a
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philosophical course, but the cultivation of a certain class of intellectual habits, and an improvement in the power of patient attention and careful methodical investigation; by which the student may afterward be enabled to search out knowledge for himself. It is, therefore, the business of the teacher to select subjects of inquiry, which, at the same time that they are of considerable intrinsic value, are so far interesting to the youthful mind as naturally to lead to the formation of those habits which it is, or ought to be, the design of academical education to bring to maturity. The philosophy of mind seems well adapted to this end. Though many speculations connected with it are abundantly abstruse, yet this study, as well as that of matter, has its plain and simple elements: the pupil may, with great advantage, be led to cultivate an acquaintance with particular facts relating to this science, which it will be the business of maturer years to generalize and arrange into a system; and he may gain at this early period a taste for pursuits and inquiries, which he may find himself afterward enabled to prosecute with vigour and effect.

For this purpose, the powers and faculties of the human mind are arranged by the present author, (not, we think, according to any very exact or logical method,) under the following heads: 1. The powers of acquiring and preserving knowledge; 2. The powers of sensation; 3. The powers of volition; 4. The powers of communication. Under the first of these divisions, to which the attention of the student is more particularly directed, we find a sketch of the origin and progress of language, and the principles of general grammar; which, if we may judge by the appearance that they present in the volume before us, might form the outline or syllabus of an interesting series of lectures; and, if well filled up by illustrations selected with taste and judgment, would certainly be fitted to captivate the attention, and profitably to employ the time, of a juvenile audience. For inquiries of this sort, it is reasonable to presume that their previous classical studies will have sufficiently prepared them; — and they are also attended with this advantage, that they are peculiarly fitted to supply a copious variety of topics for those exercises in composition which form, after all, the principal, and perhaps the most important and really valuable business of the *logic*-class. We call this the most important business of the class, not merely from its tendency to promote its immediate object, namely, a correctness and facility in English composition, (though this is an acquisition of no trifling value, which is, perhaps, left more to chance than it ought to be in some of our

our Universities,) but because it serves to stimulate the attention and curiosity of the student. When he is aware that he shall be called to reduce his thoughts to writing on the subjects which have been laid before him, he is naturally led to give a more close and careful attention to them; and we all know the influence which the very attempt to express our ideas on paper generally exerts on the clearness and precision of the ideas themselves.

With respect to the peculiar theoretical notions advanced by Professor Jardine in this part of his work, we have little to observe at present; both because we have expressed our sentiments on the subject rather fully on various former occasions, and because they are in fact very slightly connected with that which constitutes the main object and principal merit of the book. They are derived chiefly from what has been denominated the Scottish school of metaphysical philosophy; and in that part of the course which is devoted to the 'powers of taste,' as they are somewhat fancifully styled, (an apparently fair and attractive subject, but which is overwhelmed as usual with much laborious and thorny disquisition,) we are accordingly presented with all the complicated apparatus of instinctive principles, reflex senses, &c. On these theories, it is needless for us to say that we set very little value; though to a certain extent they may be of service both to the lecturer and his pupils, by furnishing a principle of arrangement for the variety of facts and examples which are doubtless introduced to illustrate them, and which may supply materials for the subsequent erection of a more philosophical system.

At the conclusion of the account of the lectures actually delivered in the logic-class, which forms the first part of the present volume, the author gives some reasons for preferring these speculations to the study of geometry, which is frequently made to occupy the attention of the student almost exclusively at the commencement of his philosophical education. We are inclined to think that the mathematical sciences are not much adapted to the taste of the Scottish nation *in general*; they certainly occupy a very subordinate station in their public seminaries; and Mr. Jardine appears to us to carry his objections rather too far. In particular, we think, he has not sufficiently adverted to the very important influence which mathematics (deservedly characterized as an *exact science*) may exert in encouraging a taste for accurate knowledge in all cases; instead of resting contented with vague hypothesis, or random conjecture. Some of his remarks, however, are not without foundation, and we are decidedly of opinion that it is very possible to run into the opposite extreme. We shall

shall be assisted in forming a just conclusion on this subject, if we keep in mind the principle above laid down, that the mere communication of knowledge is not the sole or the chief end of academical instruction. The attention of youth is directed, indeed, to various important branches of knowledge, not, however, exclusively for their own sake, but because they are instrumental to the cultivation of certain desirable mental habits. Now, although geometry is excellently adapted to inure the mind to intense thought and patient attention, accustoming it to follow the most extended chain of reasoning to a conclusion which is susceptible of demonstrative evidence,—and though, since these are faculties of very great value, and since mathematical studies are better fitted than any others to develop and improve them, such studies ought always to form an essential and indispensable department of philosophical education,—yet it is quite evident that these are by no means the only intellectual powers which it is of importance to strengthen and augment. In geometry we have no balancing of probabilities, no examination of conflicting opinions, no careful investigation of evidence, no estimate of the comparative value of opposite arguments, varying testimonies, or doubtful hypotheses. In theology, ethics, jurisprudence, history, politics, criticism, and in almost every department of practical philosophy, all these are requisite; and accordingly we believe it would be in vain to deny, on the one hand, that many eminent mathematicians have proved themselves miserably weak reasoners on different subjects; or, on the other, that many who seem incapable of comprehending the drift of geometrical reasoning are found to possess considerable powers of mind in several respects, and have sometimes made a distinguished progress in literature and the moral sciences.

‘It is most readily admitted,’ says Professor Jardine, ‘that there are many individuals, and I have the pleasure of knowing some of them, who are not more distinguished by their geometrical knowledge than by their acquirements, and the strength and soundness of their judgment on other subjects. But no general conclusion is to be drawn from particulars; and I have likewise known several persons, highly distinguished by mathematical attainments, who were to be ranked even below mediocrity in more common studies. At all events, it is certain that in every case where the time and attention are chiefly devoted to geometrical inquiries, and where a strong taste is contracted for these pursuits, not only will a reasonable portion of study be denied to other departments of learning, but even a certain degree of indifference or of dislike to these will be permitted to grow upon the mind, and

and ultimately to disqualify the student for entering upon them with success.

' These remarks are not to be considered as applicable to the science of geometry viewed as a separate branch of human learning, but solely to the use which is sometimes made of it as an introduction to philosophical education. Its unbounded utility in extending the sphere of physical knowledge, its dignity and sublimity as an instrument of thought, in the very highest tracks to which intellect soars in the search of truth, and its general subserviency to the most exalted pleasures which reason, enlightened and refined, is capable of enjoying, are neither doubted nor denied. It is in no respect derogatory to this noble science, nor can it be construed as implying the slightest impeachment of the wisdom of those who introduced it at a certain stage, into the academical course, to maintain that there are other subjects in the wide field of human learning better fitted for the purposes of a general education. Why should all the students in a university, however different their abilities, their taste, their circumstances in life, and future destination in the world, be obliged to follow one particular line of study, beginning and ending in the principles of one science? I have often wished that some of those able men who support this view of things, in relation to the materials of public instruction, would take the trouble to point out wherein consists the connection between the study of mathematics and the general culture of the mental powers; and particularly, between the higher parts of geometry and the mode of studying ethics, politics, law, jurisprudence, theology, and the fine arts; the sciences, so to call them, of business, of human life, and of manners. We certainly do not find that philosophers, divines, legislators, orators, or men of business, are particularly distinguished by their acquisitions in this science; and we seldom hear them, when they refer to their education and acquired knowledge, ascribe their success to geometrical skill or to a minute acquaintance with algebraical analysis. It is, on the contrary, to studies of a more general tendency, to language, history, eloquence, morals, and law, that they are usually found to attribute whatever art may have added to nature, in strength of talent or in command of resources.' (Pp. 254—256.)

To these remarks it might have been added that, even when the attention of the mathematical student is directed to original investigation, and not (which is too often the case) confined to a passive and servile observance of the footsteps of others, these studies are by no means fitted to supply materials on which the talents of the youthful *writer* may be exercised with advantage. To cultivate the invaluable habit of facility, elegance, and correctness in composition, is surely one of the most important objects of a philosophical education; yet an object which, in an almost exclusive attachment to mathematical studies, is liable to be overlooked. They supply little comparatively which can excite the imagination; nothing

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which calls forth or admits of any display of eloquence, or is susceptible of the embellishments of ornamented language, and nothing which is in any degree fitted to promote that easy graceful flow both of thought and expression which distinguishes the accomplished writer, and which can in fact be acquired in perfection only by long continued practice; though this practice cannot fail to become much more efficacious and beneficial, if it be commenced under the superintendence of an able and judicious instructor. The arrangements which are made to facilitate the attainment of this art constitute by far the most valuable of Mr. Jardine's improvements in the management of his class; and in comparison with which, the mere information that his pupils may derive from an attendance on his lectures appears to us a matter of very secondary importance. A detail of them is presented in the second part of his work: but a general view is first given of the mode in which the daily oral examinations are conducted; and they appear to be very judiciously adapted to their purpose in keeping up the attention of the students to the subjects of the lectures, and enabling the lecturer himself to ascertain how far he has been successful in explaining his ideas. We have afterward a minute account of the different classes of *themes*, which are proposed from time to time to exercise the pupil in composition; and also to promote in some measure the improvement of other intellectual powers. Of these themes, not fewer than five orders are enumerated; in the description of which, we think, we discover some traces of a disposition to indulge in minute distinctions and superfluous classifications, that have little tendency to promote the accuracy of our conceptions. The first themes, intended merely to accustom the students to form clear and adequate notions of the principal topics of the lectures, and to express these notions in plain and perspicuous language, will, of course, most commonly be little more than an echo of the lectures; sometimes perhaps a mere repetition of words, without any very distinct ideas annexed to them. This, at least, will probably be the case if the Professor deals in many such topics as the following: 'How do we acquire our notions of power? What is meant by a *habit of any power*?' (rather a puzzling question, we suspect, for older and wiser heads:) 'What are the processes of forming abstract and general ideas?' &c. p. 314. The succeeding orders of themes, we are informed, are intended to promote in due course the exercise of those powers by which the notions that may have been acquired are arranged under proper heads; the processes of abstraction and

and generalization, of investigation and analysis. It is afterward proposed to take a wider range; and to require the explanation of certain subjects in all their parts, or the establishment of certain propositions by appropriate arguments. These are expected to be more elaborate in point of composition, and longer time is accordingly allowed for the execution of them.

Of the method of procedure with respect to these exercises, a particular account is given, which our limits will not permit us to extract. We might perhaps object to some of the minor details, and the subjects of these compositions may in a few instances appear not to be very judiciously selected: but only those who have tried the experiment can be adequate judges of the difficulty of making a selection in all points unobjectionable; and of providing a sufficient variety of questions or topics for this purpose, which shall be at once level to the comprehension of the pupil, and fitted to call forth those talents which we thus design to cultivate and improve. We have reason to think, moreover, that we shall be borne out by the concurrent testimony of all who have been members of the logic-class at Glasgow, when we state that this department of his office is executed by the Professor with the most conscientious and unwearied diligence; and in general with a degree of judgment and ability, arising no doubt in some measure from his unequalled extent of practice, which rarely fails to be attended by beneficial results in bringing forwards any talents in this way that the youthful pupil may be found to possess. The difficulty, however, of carrying this system of minute and individual examination into full effect may be readily conceived, when we are told that the logic-class of late years has frequently contained nearly two hundred students. Now, it is obvious that, whatever may be the zeal and diligence of the Professor in the discharge of his arduous duties, the accumulation of such numbers must render it physically impossible to devote to each student all the time that might be desirable, or in some cases even necessary. Much, we have no doubt, is done; more perhaps than, without being aware of the regular system to which every thing is reduced, we might have conceived possible; yet it is not to be expected that the teacher should be personally acquainted with the character, abilities, and situation of all his pupils; nor can he be supposed to review, with the perfect accuracy that might be wished, the performances of each individual, so as to form a fair estimate of his improvement. When the number becomes so great as to give a chance of perhaps twenty to one that any particular

ticular essay or exercise will not be examined, a strong temptation is offered to the indolent student to content himself with very imperfect preparation, and to trust to his good fortune for escape from exposure. We say nothing of the impossibility of superintending the leisure hours of such a multitude, because this is an attempt which, in the Scotch colleges, is universally abandoned altogether; the students being dispersed in private houses, so that the greatest part of their time is left almost entirely at their own disposal. This is doubtless an imperfection in the system of academical discipline: but it is probably not attended by such serious ill consequences as some might be disposed to imagine. There is an inconvenience, in these as well as in more extensive communities, in attempting to govern too minutely; and we agree with Prof. Jardine that, 'if too much importance be not given to forms and ceremonies which have no tendency to promote science; if nothing is required of students but what is necessary and useful, and if their minds are kept in a constant state of activity in regard to their studies, the rules of academical discipline need not be numerous.'

In the latter part of his volume, the Professor is anxious to recommend the more extensive introduction of the system which he has explained into other branches of education, and into other Universities. We have not room to enter at length into this discussion; and in fact it is a difficult and perhaps a delicate subject. All of us have our prejudices in favour of that which is established, and which has been found by experience to be in the main beneficial; though it may admit of considerable improvements; and it may sometimes happen that peculiar institutions may derive their utility from their adaptation to particular times, places, and circumstances. We do, however, presume to think that, from some parts of the work before us, more wealthy and splendid establishments may derive useful hints; and we particularly allude to the methods which are taken to excite an active spirit of emulation, to give a more practical turn to the general course of study, and to form by continual and unremitting exercise the talent of easy and correct composition. The following observations on one singular part of the constitution of the English colleges appear deserving of notice:

'To give full effect to this method of teaching philosophy, the office of tutor in the several colleges ought to be permanent. Such an arrangement seems absolutely essential to proficiency and success in the art of teaching; for this art, like all others, being founded on practice and observation, must derive from that quarter all the improvement of which it is susceptible.

Upon

Upon the erroneous supposition that the art of teaching consists in the mere communication of knowledge, it has been inferred that wherever a person has acquired a certain portion of science or literature, he is immediately qualified to instruct others. But knowledge and intellect are not the only qualifications of a teacher, nor even the most important. On the contrary, it is sufficiently confirmed by experience that the most profound scientific attainments, the finest imagination and the most exquisite taste, do not of themselves qualify their possessor for becoming a discriminating or useful teacher. The knowledge which will most avail him in aiding the endeavours of youth, is that which is drawn from a strict attention to the development of the intellectual powers and habits, and from a close and continued intercourse with his pupils in all their efforts, in their success, and in their failure. A teacher, no doubt, when he enters upon his office, must gain experience at the cost of his students; on the same principle that a young physician improves in skill at the hazard of his patients;—but in colleges where the tutors have their eyes fixed on senior fellowships or a church-living, from the moment that they enter upon their duty, it is impossible that much progress can be made by them in the difficult art of teaching. In this way, there is a constant and rapid succession of inexperienced tutors thrown into the only active department of the colleges; and education, viewed in reference to its most important objects, never can rise above a state of infancy. The tutors relinquish their office just when they are becoming qualified to fill it. The appointment indeed, according to the notions prevalent in such places, is at no time considered of high estimation; it may be filled by any one who has been elected to a fellowship, and it is abandoned by all, whenever an opportunity offers. In such circumstances, then, we may safely infer, there can be nothing of that ardour and enthusiasm so necessary to carry a teacher through the drudgery of his professional duties. There can be no such thing as an *art* of education. The old and the experienced quit the helm, and the vessel is left to the direction of those who have scarcely made one voyage. In every other art, it would be thought singular indeed, if those who were appointed to teach it, were persons who, from their age or practice, had the fewest opportunities and the most confined experience, who were to continue in that office only a very short time, who consider it merely as a temporary employment, and who, moreover, during that short time, so far from having a sufficient inducement to exert their talents to the utmost of their power, would have their minds fixed on a better situation, soon to be enjoyed by them, not as the reward of services, but as the mere contingent of seniority. If this would be thought absurd in every other department of life, why is an exception to be made in the case of one of the most difficult, and certainly not the least important of all arts,—the art of teaching? (Pp. 470—473.)

The publication before us, of which we have thus endeavoured to give a candid though imperfect analysis, evidently contains the result of much serious reflection on the important subject to which it relates; and it is on the whole correctly and pleasingly written, though we meet with a few Scotisms, and an occasional recurrence of certain *technical* terms of academic discipline, which were naturally familiar to the writer's imagination. Its readers, accordingly, we are confident, will not lay it down without sentiments of respect for the venerable author: who, we understand, is now far advanced in the evening of a long and active day of useful exertion. In the talents and eminence of many of his pupils, he has already reaped what is doubtless, in his estimation, the most valuable reward of his labours: but we trust that he will yet be permitted to see his example more generally imitated, and his well-earned reputation diffused through a wider sphere.

ART. V. *Memoirs relating to European and Asiatic Turkey, and other Countries of the East*; edited from Manuscript Journals, by Robert Walpole, M.A. 4to. pp. 607. With many Plates. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.

MR. WALPOLE is too well known to the literary world in general, and especially to British travellers in Greece and the Turkish dominions, to require any personal notice from our hands: in their works and journals, he meets us at every turn as an elegant scholar, a persevering traveller, and a man of active research and accurate information. We now fall into his company under the character of an editor rather than an author; a collector of the labours of others more than an historian of his own. His object is to add to the knowledge already obtained relative to the different parts of the Turkish dominions, by publishing the papers of some travellers in those regions who, from various motives, have declined to perform that office for themselves; consisting of such remarks 'as had been communicated either in the form of journals, letters, or detached essays.' In performing this commendable task, he presents us with the personal observations of many sensible and accomplished men; who, though averse from the art and mystery of book-making, were neither careless travellers, nor so confident in the tenacity of their own memory as to intrust the information which they had acquired to such insecure custody. Among these papers, will be also found some portions of the volume that belong exclusively to Mr. Walpole himself; and in the threshold of it

stands an essay from his pen, on the causes of the weakness and decline of that once-powerful monarchy, whose present state as well as antiquities the succeeding papers are intended to illustrate. Many of these causes must naturally be obvious to all persons who have either travelled in Turkey, or have read with any degree of attention the accounts of others who have visited it. This portion of the volume we propose, therefore, to dismiss without examination; at the same time that we express our thanks for the information which we have received by reading them placed in detail, and traced in their growth and progress.

The first paper contains *An Account of a Journey through the District of Maina in the Morea*, extracted from the papers of Mr. Morritt, relative to a part of Greece which has seldom been explored. The district of the Peloponnesus, which it occupies, is that which borders on the Messenian and Lacedæmonian gulfs, bounded on the north by the highest ridge of the Taygetus, whence a chain of rugged mountains descends to Cape Matapan, the southern termination of the country.

The natural difficulties of this region, coupled with the bravery of the inhabitants, enabled them to resist the miseries of Turkish domination; and their independence, when Mr. Morritt visited them (1795), was maintained as much by the terror which their name inspired, as by the jealousy with which they guarded their frontiers. They were consequently represented by the Turks as lawless robbers, and the report was echoed by the Greek merchants of Livadea and Napoli: but Mr. M. was delighted to find the reverse of all such insinuations; and, during his stay in their country, he witnessed in their hospitality 'a state of society very remote from that which falls under the observation of a traveller in other parts of the Levant.' He describes the government as bearing a considerable resemblance to that of the antient Highland clans in Scotland.

'It was divided into smaller or larger districts, over each of which a chief, or Capitano, presided, whose usual residence was a fortified tower, the resort of his family and clan in times of peace, and their refuge in war. The district they governed belonged to their retainers, who each contributed a portion (I think, a tenth) of the produce of his land to the maintenance of the family under whom he held. Each chief, besides this, had his own domain, which was cultivated by his servants and slaves, and which was never very considerable. They were perfectly independent of each other; the judges of their people at home, and their leaders when they took the field. The most powerful Capitano of the district usually assumed the title of Bey of the Maina, and in that name transacted their business with the Turks, negotiated their

treaties, or directed their arms against the common enemy. In the country itself his power rested merely on the voluntary obedience of the other chiefs, and his jurisdiction extended in fact only over his own immediate dependants. The Turkish court, to preserve at least a shadow of power over this refractory community, generally confirmed by a ferman the appointment of the Bey, whose own power or influence enabled him to support the title. The population of the Maina is so great in proportion to its fertility, that they are obliged to import many of the common necessities of life. For these they must occasionally trade with the Turkish provinces, and exchange their own oil and silk and domestic manufactures for the more essential articles of wheat and maize, and provisions. To obtain these, they had recourse sometimes to smuggling, and sometimes to a regular payment of the Charatch, and acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Porte. This they again threw off, when a favourable year, or any extraordinary sources of supply rendered their submission unnecessary; and by such rebellion had more than once drawn upon them the vengeance of their powerful neighbour. The contest had been repeatedly renewed, and as often the Turks had been repulsed or had fallen victims to the determined resistance of the Mainiots, and the inaccessible nature of their country.'

Their warfare was naturally of the kind that is exercised by the Guerrillas, and the steeper ridges of the Taygetus afforded a secure retreat in seasons of unsuccessful conflict. The habits of piracy, although softened in some measure, as Mr. Walpole conceives, by commercial pursuits, seem nevertheless tolerably systematic; and they contributed, perhaps, not a little to preserve these people in their independence, by the spirit of enterprize and hardihood which they engendered.* Yet, though their hostility was treacherous and cruel, their friendship was inviolable: the title of stranger was sacred; and no nation exceeded them in performing the rites of hospitality. Their churches were neat and well attended, but their superstition was great. The liberal intercourse between the sexes formed a very pleasing feature in their character. Women, too, in default of male issue, succeeded to the possessions of their fathers, and shared not only in the labours of domestic life but even in the dangers of the field; in no country were they more free, and in no country did that freedom lead to less abuse of itself. The following is an agreeable picture of their manners:

'As the day after our arrival at Kitreés was Easter Sunday, we of course remained there, and had an opportunity of witnessing and partaking in the universal festivity which prevailed not only

* See our review of Captain Beaufort's *Karamania*, Number for April last.

in the castle, but in the villages of the country round it. In every Greek house a lamb is killed at this season, and the utmost rejoicing prevails. We dined with Zanetachi Kutuphari and his family at their usual hour of half-past eleven in the forenoon, and after our dinner were received in much state by his niece Helena in her own apartments. She was in fact the lady of the castle, and chief of the district round it, which was her own by inheritance from her father. She was a young widow, and still retained much of her beauty; her manners were pleasing and dignified. An audience in form from a young woman accompanied by her sister, who sat near her, and a train of attendant females in the rich and elegant dress of the country, was a novelty in our tour, and so unlike the customs which prevailed within a few short miles from the spot where we were, that it seemed like an enchantment of romance. The Capitanness alone was seated at our entrance, who, when she had offered us chairs, requested her sister to sit down near her, and ordered her attendants to bring coffee and refreshments. We were much struck with the general beauty of the Mainiot women here, which we afterwards found was not confined to Kitreës; we remarked it in many other villages; and it is of a kind that from their habits of life would not naturally be expected. With the same fine features that prevail among the beauties of Italy and Sicily, they have the delicacy and transparency of complexion, with the brown or auburn hair, which seems peculiar to the colder regions. Indeed, from the vicinity to the sea, the summers here are never intensely hot, nor are the winters severe in this southern climate; the same causes in some of the Greek islands produce the same effect, and the women are much more beautiful in general than those of the same latitude on the continent. The men, too, are a well proportioned and active race, not above the middle size, but spare, sinewy, and muscular.

The remains of antiquity in the Mainiot territory, although not scarce, are rarely of a very interesting description. Some places were identified by our traveller with the accounts given by Pausanias. At Gythium, the vestiges appeared chiefly of Roman construction, and no edifices of earlier date were to be traced: the island of Cranæ, which is to the south, and secured the port, is low and flat, and at a distance of only a hundred yards from the shore.

To these notes of Mr. Morritt succeed some remarks by the late Dr. Sibthorp; who, in company with Mr. Bauer, a celebrated draftsman, arrived in Crete in 1786, and in that and the succeeding year visited this island and many parts of the Levant. The botanical investigation of these countries was the main object of this traveller, to which he added researches in other branches of natural history. In 1794, he made a second expedition to Turkey, in company with Mr. Hawkins; examining the plain of Troy, the islands of Imbros and Lemnos, the peninsula of Athos, and passing some time in

Attica and two months in the Morea. He died at Bath in 1796, of a pulmonary complaint, in the thirty-eighth year of his age; bequeathing a freehold estate to the University of Oxford, for the purpose of first publishing his *Flora Græca* in 10 folio volumes, with 100 coloured plates in each, and a prodromus of the same.* The task of procuring an editor devolved on his executors, who have, as it appears, ably discharged their duty in selecting Mr. Walpole for the office.

The first remarks, here extracted from Dr. Sibthorp's papers, are published as illustrative of those of Mr. Morritt, relating of course to the same part of Greece: the succeeding observations applying to other countries which he visited, especially Phocis, Cyprus, Asia Minor, and Attica. As we cannot embrace the notices of all these regions, we will join ourselves to the company of Dr. Sibthorp in the last. The portion of this gentleman's papers, here extracted as relating to Attica, refers principally to statistics, and consequently to subjects which have been comparatively little noticed by preceding travellers in Greece.

The number of sheep and goats in Attica is computed at 60,000 for the former, and for the goats 100,000; and the annual consumption in Attica is estimated at 15,000, in the proportion of two goats to one sheep. What proportion of them is bred in this district we do not learn, but large numbers arrive from the mountains of Thessaly during the winter months. The hair of the goats is all manufactured into sacks, bags, and carpets, of which a considerable quantity is exported; and the animal is sheared, as is also the sheep, in April or May. Wool is made into nearly the same articles as the goat's hair, the labour of which is chiefly performed by the Albanese.

* The first year the calf is called *μοσχάρι*, the female *μοσχίνα*; the male the second year is *δάμαλις*, which name it retains until the fourth year, when it is called *βόδι*; the bull is *ταύρος*. Only those oxen are killed which are unfit for labour; the number may amount in the year to about 200. The labouring oxen are computed at 3000. The number of cows is something less; they are not milked, but kept only for breeding. In winter they are fed on straw. A good cow is worth 12 piastres; calves are rarely killed. Four or eight oxen are sufficient for 100 stremata of land, according to the nature of the soil, whether it be light or heavy. They are kept out during the summer; in the winter they are put

* When these publications are completed, the annual sum of 200*l.* is to be paid to a professor of Rural Economy in this University, and the remainder of the rents to be applied to the purchase of books for him,

into the stalls, until the 10th of March. A good ox, at six years old, is worth 50 piastres.'

We could wish for some information of the relative quantities of land in pasturage, tillage, and vineyard; since, as the flocks do not require more than five shepherds to 1000 sheep, if the proportion of pasturage be very great, there is some difficulty in imagining adequate employment for the general population, though it amounts to no more than 12,000 inhabitants. The subsequent notices, obtained by Dr. S. from Logotheti, present us with a clearer view of the state of property, than we recollect to have received from any previous traveller:

'The country of Attica is divided into four districts, namely, Messoir, Catta Lama, Eleusina, with Mount Casha; and the territory of the city of Athens. These districts contain about 60 towns or villages, and about 12,000 inhabitants; nearly 1000 of these are Turks, and 5000 pay Charatch: the rest are women or children under the age of twelve years. The Charatch is divided into three ratios, which are taken according to the property of the person taxed; the first includes those of the largest property, they pay eleven piastres; the next in consequence half of that sum; those of the last division, which includes the poorest persons in Attica, pay 100 paras. Among the lower class of Athenians there are many, who, notwithstanding their oppressed state, enjoy certain consequence and property; they possess each a house and garden, a vineyard containing at least a strema of land, with a score of olive trees and some bee-hives; and the olive grounds of the large proprietors furnish them during the winter months with constant employment. The season for gathering the olives begins in October, and continues until February, during which period they take at least 25,000 piastres. A man is paid 20 paras, women and boys 10 paras each, for a day's labour. The forementioned districts have a Soubashi and Scrivano attached separately to them. The Scrivano is a kind of bailiff who takes an account of what is received or due. The rights of the Vaivode are a tenth of all the corn that is reaped; the vineyards, the cotton, madder, and garden grounds, pay only a composition of eight paras the strema. The strema contains as much ground as is contained within 40 square paces. A proprietor purchases so many stremata or measures of land; he then builds cottages, in which he puts, as tenants, industrious peasants. He furnishes them with cattle and seed-corn, and they supply labour. When the harvest is made, the tenth portion is taken by the Soubashi for the Vaivode; the remainder is divided into three portions, of these the *οἰκνυπος* or proprietor, takes two, and only one goes to the tenant; but if the latter has cattle and a house of his own, which is frequently the case, he then divides with the proprietor, and takes an equal share. The villages differ much in respect to the number of

houses, and the size of the farms; some farms consist only of a few zevgaria, others of several. Each zevgari contains 350 stremata; they plough with two oxen. The price of wheat, which was at present high, was five piastres the kilo; the kilo weighs about 25 okes, and the oke is 400 Greek drachms. The price of wheat is extremely variable; in plentiful years it is sold so low as two piastres the kilo *; and in great scarcity it has been sold at six piastres. But the richest produce of Attica is its oil, of which it is computed that it yields 20,000 measures annually; the measure is five okes and a half; each measure sells at present at 100 paras. A considerable quantity of madder is cultivated, and some cotton; the latter was selling in the Bazar at 15 paras the oke. The proprietors of Attica have been extremely oppressed by the tyranny of Hadje Aga. He has seized, by the most nefarious means, a fifth part of the lands of Attica, forcing the little proprietors to sell him their possessions at his own price.'

In proceeding to the papers of the late Professor Carlyle, it is unnecessary to say a word relative either to the character or attainments of their author: they consist of two series of letters, the former addressed to the present Bishop of Lincoln, and the latter to the Bishop of Durham. The Professor had been requested by Mr. Pitt, and the Bishop of Lincoln, to direct his attention, during his residence at Constantinople, to the existence of some Greek and Latin MSS. which were said to be deposited in the library of the Seraglio, where some volumes in different oriental dialects were also reported to be preserved. The most material of Mr. Carlyle's letters to this prelate contains a very detailed statement of the examination which he made; and whence it appears that no such remains, respecting Greek or Roman writers, do really exist:—but some works of the other class were discovered. A French author had asserted the same fact nearly a hundred and fifty years since; but, as we find from Mr. Walpole, unknown to the Professor; and the double testimony of the two travellers, corroborating each other, must now be deemed satisfactory. The library in the Seraglio, into which Mr. Carlyle gained admittance, was built in the form of a Greek cross; one of the arms constituting an anti-room, and the other three, together with the centre, making the library: the room was not large, measuring, from the extremity of any arm to that of the opposite one, not quite 36 feet. The books were laid on their sides, one above another, having their ends outwards, and 'their letters written on the edges of their leaves.' Such a mode of arrangement must have

* Eight kiloes and a half make a quarter of wheat.'

been inconvenient for the purposes of examination, especially when time was precious; yet Mr. Carlyle assures us that there was not one book which he did not inspect separately, having remained in the library only 'as long as decency permitted,' — a very vague definition of the time employed. The whole number of MSS. amounted to 1294, which the Professor classes according to their several subjects. The greater part were Arabic, but not one volume occurred in Hebrew, Greek, or Latin.

An attempt to examine the contents of another royal library at Constantinople did not succeed; and, although the non-existence of any very valuable articles in it was ascertained on tolerably precise authority, it is to be regretted that no equal degree of certainty respecting it exists.

Mr. Carlyle's letters to the Bishop of Durham relate chiefly to the state of Christianity in the Turkish dominions in Europe and Asia; to the reception of an Arabic version of the New Testament, which had been sent for circulation by the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge; and to such other matters as travellers in unfrequented countries usually communicate either to the public or their friends. In answer to some queries of the Bishop concerning the respective numbers of the different sects of Christians in the East, the Professor returns this reply:

'I cannot say that when I was upon the spot I was able to obtain any information on the subject upon which I could much rely, as each individual always appeared to swell the number of his own community and to diminish that of others, but it will not be difficult at Constantinople to ascertain the question with tolerable accuracy. In European Turkey the Latins and Armenians (except in the town of Constantinople alone, where there are undoubtedly a very large quantity of Armenians,) bear no proportion to the Greeks. The Latins, I am informed by the Vicar-General here, do not amount to more than 40,000. The Greeks in Europe certainly out-number the Turks in a ratio of three or four to one. The whole number of them, according to the best information I can procure, amounting to about three millions and an half. In Asia, except upon the sea coasts and the islands, the number of the Greeks is very considerable, but the Armenians are found in every town from the confines of Tartary to Egypt, and in their habits and modes of life approach so nearly to those of the Turks that they are not easily at the first view distinguished from them. In Syria there are few persons to be found of either the Latin or the Greek communions, except those who are established in the neighbourhood of some convent. The Armenians are much more widely dispersed, and as I was informed by the Patriarch of that nation at Jerusalem, (a most respectable person who died of the plague at Jaffa, only ten days after I left that place,) constitute in Persia a

very large part of the inhabitants. The population of the city of Jerusalem I believe I obtained pretty accurately; it consists of 9000 Mahomedans, 3000 Jews, 2000 Greeks, 600 Latins, 300 Armenians, 100 Jacobites or Syrians, and two or three families of Copts and Maronites. Your Lordship will be surprized at the number of the Jews; and I could not gain any satisfactory account how they existed in a place where they do not cultivate the ground, and where they cannot have much commerce, as it requires a guard to go in safety even half a mile from the walls of the town, and you cannot travel to any distance without a very considerable escort; had it not been for a caravan of Armenian pilgrims, consisting of four or five hundred persons who were going to Jerusalem to celebrate Easter, whom we joined, I should not have been able to have gotten to that city at all.'

Next in order to these papers of the late Mr. Carlyle, appears an account of the monastic institutions and libraries on Mount Athos, by Dr. Hunt, who was attached to Lord Elgin's embassy; — an embassy, it must be confessed, which drew around it a greater association of learned men, and curious travellers, than any that has emanated from the British government, and, as well incidentally as intentionally, has thrown more light on the state of that portion of our globe than we had antecedently obtained for ages. Dr. Hunt's account of the monasteries on the peninsula of Athos is extremely interesting. He visited them all in company with Mr. Carlyle; and, though their united researches into the libraries of those institutions were productive of little benefit, yet an insight into the history, regulations, and manners of those establishments, so little known to the states of Europe, (except those who hold communion with the Greek church,) has produced a very entertaining journal.

The territory itself seems to be admirably adapted for the purposes of religious seclusion, if such a separation from the concerns of the world can be productive of any advantages. Of the climate, it is unnecessary to speak: but the scenery is described as comprising in different parts every thing that we deem picturesque and romantic; and, though the pressure of Turkish domination is severely felt in the exactions levied on these recluses, yet the actual presence of their barbarous masters does not contribute to add weight to the chain. A solitary governor in the provincial capital of Chariess, without the accompaniments of a petty Ottoman court, and he himself rather relaxing into the manners of the Greeks than contrasting an odious tyranny with their subservience, is the only visible sign of servitude before their eyes. Acknowledging, as we must, the general absurdity of monastic institutions, we cannot be blind to the possible advantages
resulting

resulting from them to Christians oppressed by Mohammedan intolerance; and, though it appears that these establishments on Athos are not the seats of piety or learning which the warm imaginations of their founders might have unwisely anticipated, they afford an asylum to bishops unmitred by Turkish caprice, to spiritual teachers after a thankless attempt at doing their duty in more active scenes, and to some learned men, — of comparative learning, at least, in the darkness that surrounds them, — when in the decline of their years they are less able to endure the vexations of Turkish tyranny.

The twenty monasteries, which constitute this religious republic, are divided into four classes of five each, according to their respective sizes; and one convent of every class sends annually a deputy to Chariess. The population of the peninsula is estimated by Dr. Hunt at six thousand, including not only the caloyers and hermits, but labourers, workmen, &c. No female is permitted to dwell within this sacred district,

“ *Exagitata procul non intrat femina terram,*”

and even brute animals of that sex are jealously excluded. The birds of the air nevertheless defy these worse than childish regulations: for they procreate and multiply in spite of the holy Fathers. These venerable persons have, however, gained one victory over universal habit, almost as difficult to enforce: — their Turkish governor lives without his haram.

Of the primæval history of these convents, little certainty can be known. Some lay claim to as high antiquity as the age of Constantine, Arcadius, Honorius, and other early emperors: but these pretensions have nothing to support them; and Dr. Hunt tells us that no records of any of these monasteries are of a higher date than the reign of Nicephorus Phocas, about A.D. 960. — If their origin is to be traced from this epoch, the subsequent story will shew that it was not of the most creditable kind:

When the crafty caloyers adverted to the progress of the Turkish arms under the Sultan Orchan and his immediate successors, and conjectured what might soon be the fate of Constantinople itself, they sent a deputation to the Sultan at Brusa in Asia Minor, carrying a present of fourteen thousand sequins, and begging that when his victorious arms had taken possession of the seat of the Greek empire, the caloyers might be left in the full enjoyment of their religious privileges, and in the exclusive possession of Mount Athos. The Turk accepted the bribe, pro-
mised

mised all they wished, and gave them a charter, which is said to be still preserved among the archives at Chariess, the metropolis of the peninsula. The Turkish Sultans, however, have since made this faithless body pay dearly for their treachery to their own Christian monarch, by throwing so large a sum of money into the hands of the enemy of their religion and their country at so critical a moment; and instead of being for ever exempted from tribute as they had expected, they now pay annually one hundred and thirteen thousand piastres to the Porte, besides occasional contributions in time of war and other demands, one of which in the preceding month amounted to forty-eight purses, or twenty-four thousand piastres. In consequence of these perpetual extortions, the convents have been obliged to borrow large sums, for which they give from four to eight *per cent.*, according to the exigency of the moment, or the piety of the lender. The general debt is supposed to amount to a million of piastres, or nearly eighty thousand pounds sterling. Father Gerasimos said that some of the monasteries were unable to raise even the interest of their borrowed money, and that the whole community must soon become bankrupt.'

Great diversity prevails in the present state of these institutions: some having many exterior marks of a flourishing condition, while others have so far declined as to be apparently on the eve of dissolution. An anecdote is related of one of this latter class, which manifests no little shrewdness in the party concerned:

'A beggar passing some months ago by the door of this convent, asked the accustomed alms of bread and wine, on which the porter told him that the Abbot had strictly forbidden him to distribute any more, as the convent was poor, and scarcely able to support its own members. In the course of conversation the beggar asked how the convent became so poor, and on the porter's not being able to give a satisfactory answer, he replied, I will inform you. There were two brothers who dwelt in this convent at its first foundation, and on them its happiness solely depended. Your tyrannical Abbot forced one of them into exile; the other soon fled, and with them, your prosperity. But, be assured, that until you recal your elder brother, you will continue poor. What were their names? said the wondering caloyer. The expelled brother, replied the beggar, was called *Δίδωτε*, and the name of him who followed was *Δοθήσεται*. (Give, and it shall be given unto you. Luke, vi. 38.)'

The revenues of these establishments depend in a very great measure on the precarious offerings of pilgrims, who arrive occasionally in vast numbers; especially at the festival of Easter, when Dr. Hunt was present; — and on the sums collected by mendicant brethren in all such countries as profess the creed of the Greek church. Of these latter, we

regret to say, their honesty does not always equal the expectation which their professional calling might imply; as art *Hegoumenos*, or Abbot, rather plainly informed our travellers. Their own lands produce little except grapes, vegetables, and fuel: but meat is prohibited, except in cases of extreme illness; and, on the fast-days, eggs, oil, and fish are excluded; so much greater is the sanctity of the Greeks than that of the Romish church: the caloyers, or lay-brethren, are in these respects under the same rules with the monks. — The buildings are in some cases very magnificent, though replete with instances of barbarous taste; which is most observable in one that is inhabited exclusively by Bulgarians, who were at the time of Dr. Hunt's and Mr. Carlyle's visit re-building their monastery with a new colonnade, of which the arches were all of different diameters and heights. Of want of hospitality, the travellers had very rarely reason to complain.

As to the religious observances of these recluses, they are necessarily founded on those of the Greek church, and may be easily ascertained elsewhere. In "Covel's Greek Church," cited by Dr. H., the Greeks are said to be of all the world *Φιλοθεοκαλάτοι*, the most zealous adorers of the mother of God, to whom far more prayers are offered than to Christ. Dr. Hunt's own observations seem in a great measure to justify this remark. He does not appear to have conversed on such subjects with them more than once, when he shewed them a Greek version of the liturgy of the Church of England; and, on this occasion, that part of the creed which asserts the procession of the Holy Ghost from the Father, and the Son, led them so much into controversial conversation, that he abstained from again making a similar experiment.

To advert to other subjects, Dr. Hunt offers a valuable corroboration of the story of the canal cut by Xerxes through the isthmus of Athos, to open a passage for his fleet. It is somewhat remarkable that so curious a vestige of antiquity has altogether escaped the observation of many other travellers; yet Dr. Hunt traced it, as he tells us, very plainly, and by an admeasurement of the length of it produced a result nearly corresponding to the description of Herodotus. He found it 'much filled up with mud and rushes, but traceable in its whole extent; having its bottom in many places very little above the level of the sea; in some parts of it corn is sown, in others there are ponds of water.' Mr. Mitford thinks that the fact, that this work was effected by Xerxes, is as well established as any point in Greek history; yet the well known words of Juvenal seem to imply that it was re-

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garded with some degree of scepticism, at least as long since as the days in which that poet lived :

—— “ *creditur olim*
Velificatus Athqs, et quicquid Græcia mendas
Audet in historiâ.”

In proceeding with these transactions of British travellers in the Turkish dominions, as Mr. Walpole's collection of papers might be fairly denominated *, we next arrive at some valuable remains of Dr. Sibthorp concerning natural history. It is manifest that many of the works of the antients stand in great need of that illustration, which can be derived only from such sources as those which this traveller has opened to us. The editor quotes an observation of Beckmann, that the botany of the antients would be more clearly understood, if the names used by the modern Greeks were registered ; a remark which Mr. W. extends to ornithology, ichthyology, and other branches of natural science. Dr. Sibthorp has noted down some of these modern names : but it appears that these Romaïc appellations were not very accurately written by him ; and, though the editor has done his utmost to remedy this defect, some imperfections must still necessarily exist, which, without impeaching the usefulness of the system, render it less available than it would otherwise have been. — Indeed, several Romaïc names for animals are essentially different from those that were employed by the antients, and therefore the system could never be applied universally. In some of these modern names, etymology will be found a tolerable guide for indicating the object represented by them, but, as explanatory of antient writers, they would in course fail in their use.

So many other subjects press on us in this collection, that we must decline to enter on the natural history of Dr. Sibthorp on this occasion ; and we the more readily omit it, because it seems probable that another opportunity may occur, when a more general notice of that author's relics may comprehend it.

Remarks on Parts of Bæotia and Phocis, from the Journals of Mr. Raikes. — One of the most striking observations in the early part of this journal relates to the tides of the

* The present title of this work, ‘ *Memoirs relating to European and Asiatic Turkey*,’ does not very accurately represent its contents : because we have subsequently journals, &c. relating to Egypt, which according to our present divisions of the globe cannot be included under this head. Still less can travels in Nubia be considered as bearing any reference to the general title.

Euripus. The channel at the narrowest part does not exceed fifty yards in width, and is much obstructed by the massy piers of the bridge. When Mr. Raikes crossed it a second time, he found the current falling with nearly as much rapidity as the Thames at London-bridge, in an opposite direction to that of the evening preceding; and he was assured by the natives that the tide changed every six hours, if no violent winds interfered with the regular flux. Father Babin, a Jesuit, says Mr. R., studied the tides of the Euripus with attention, in order to reconcile the varying accounts of the antients. Let us see how they vary.—Pliny, Pomponius Mela, and Strabo are allowed by Mr. R. to agree in ascribing seven times of flux and reflux in twenty-four hours: but Seneca, says he, allows fourteen, an opinion which he grounds on this passage from the Hercules Ceteus, v. 778.:

“ *At qua nivosi patitur Aquilonis minas,
Euripus undas flectit instabilis vagas,
Septemque cursus volvit, et totidem refert,
Dum lapsa Titan mergat Oceano juga.*”

We have added the two former lines to the quotation of Mr. Raikes, in order to make the whole more clear. Some commentators might perhaps be hardy enough to attempt, from this very passage, to prove that the opinion of Seneca coincided with that of Pliny, and that only seven *changes* of the tide were specified by the poet: but, in case that Mr. Raikes should be unwilling to concede this interpretation, let us look on Seneca here as a poet, and not as a natural philosopher. Perhaps in no place was the effect of tide more visible within his observation, that at the narrow strait of the Euripus.* Poets are naturally given to amplification: they have the liberty of adding to the number of heads and arms of their giants *ad libitum*; and they are not bound to arithmetical calculation, when they wish to describe any extraordinary natural phenomena. He elsewhere writes: (Hercules furens, v. 377.)

“ *Priusque multo vicibus alterius fugax
Euripus undâ stabit Euboicâ piger:*”

that is, sooner shall the constant flux and reflux of the Euripus cease, than Megara consent to the proposals of

* See Rennell's Herodotus, on the Syrtes, &c. p. 659.; where he says that the tide creates a variation of five feet at Venice, but only of twelve or thirteen inches at Naples, and in the Euripus. Still the effect of a much less rise of water in a narrow strait, where it rushed with rapidity, would be greater than that of a more considerable rise in a far broader space.

Lycus. We may assume, and not unfairly; from these two passages, that Seneca did look on the tides of the Euripus as extraordinary phenomena; and, if we allow him full latitude as a poet, and with something of the numerical amount "seven" running in his head, as relating to the Euripus, the supposed variation of his description from that of other writers is not altogether unaccountable.*

Thus much we have remarked on the presumption that these writers do vary: but whether they really do thus differ is a matter of much doubt. Pomponius Mela says, lib. ii. c. 7, "*Euripon vocant, rapidum mare, et alterno cursu septies die ac septies nocte fluctibus invicem versis, adeo immodicè fluens, ut ventos etiam ac plena ventis navigia frustretur;*" and Pliny remarks, that the tides in the Euripus, and in some other places, are not from local circumstances reducible to general rules, "*velut Taurometani Euripi, et in Eubœa septies die ac nocte reciprocantis,*" lib. ii. c. 100. Of these two passages, that of Pliny is the least determinate, and may consequently be said to agree either with Mela or Seneca: but these two writers express themselves so similarly, that, whether they mean fourteen or seven, if we explain both by one and the same rule, they will be found to correspond exactly. Therefore, although a doubt may possibly remain relative to the signification of their words, we can have little hesitation in allowing that they mean one and the same thing.

It seems far more difficult to reconcile these accounts with modern observations; as those of Babin, and of the modern natives, which determined the former to presume the usual tides, with the exception of certain days, when he could not detect any regular order: "namely, the first five days of the moon's first quarter, and the same of her last quarter." Pliny makes a remark partly similar, but not as referring to the same days of the moon.

Mr. Walpole has added some observations of his own to those of Mr. Raikes on the Bœotian Catabothra, and the Copaic lake. — Mr. R. shall speak first:

"The Copaic lake is, in fact, nothing more than a lower division of the great plain which formed the territories of Haliartus, Livadeæ, Chæronea, Orchomenus, and other towns of Bœotia. The river Cephissus, flowing through this plain, stagnated in the lower extremity of it, and formed there a wide but shallow lake by the accumulation of its waters, which must have risen still higher, had not one of those fissures common in mountains of

* "*Certus pro incerto numera fortasse positus,*" is the remark of a critic in the variorum edition on the first of these passages.

lime-stone received them, and carried them off through the *καταβόρα*.

"The river having no other discharge for its streams, (for the whole of the plain, like all the interior plains of Greece, is entirely surrounded by mountains,) every obstruction in this subterraneous passage endangered the safety of the tract of country, which was situated a little above its usual level. At the time when the undertaking for clearing the *καταβόρα* was proposed, the rich and flourishing towns of the plain were reduced to a state of desolation by the incroachments of the lake, and under the despondency occasioned by an universal monarchy sunk into complete decay. At present the rising of the waters in winter has turned a great portion of the richest soil in the world into a morass, and should any permanent internal obstruction occur in the stream, the whole of this fertile plain might gradually become included in the limits of the Copaic lake."

Now for Mr. W. :

'These great artificial excavations were probably formed by the wealthy Orchomenians, in very early ages, to protect the plain belonging to their state from inundation. The people who erected the Treasury, as it is called, of Orchomenus, wanted neither skill nor power to excavate the rock for such important purposes. The caverns (*σάραγγες*, Arist. Met. lib. xiii.) by which the waters were discharged from the plain were sometimes stopped by earthquakes (Strabo, lib. ix.); at other times from the same cause new fissures were occasioned. In the time of Alexander either fresh openings were made, for the sake of receiving and conducting the waters, or the old apertures were enlarged. The name of the man of Chalcis who was employed on this occasion may have been Crates. (Compare Stephanus in v. *Ἀθήναι* with Strabo, lib. ix. and consult Freret. 47. Acad. des Inscr. 13.)'

In this latter extract, from the pen of the editor, it seems doubtful whether he does not consider these excavations as altogether artificial: while Mr. Raikes speaks of the fissures common to mountains of lime-stone, and implies consequently that some at least of these channels are natural; adding that the square pits attributed to the time of Alexander were near the lake, and in the supposed direction of the under-ground stream. — Mr. Walpole seems to apply the term *καταβόρα* to these square pits only; while Mr. Raikes appears to include under this name all the subterraneous conduits and reservoirs. A reference to Strabo does not reconcile this apparent variation: but we conceive that a little inaccuracy of expression must lurk somewhere; and that both natural and artificial channels have existed, the latter having been made at various times to assist the former.

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The Corycian cave in the regions of Parnassus has been described by other travellers, but no where more perspicuously, or with more felicity, than by Mr. Raikes.

‘ The narrow and low entrance of the cave spread at once into a chamber 330 feet long, by nearly 200 wide; the stalactites from the top hung in the most graceful forms, the whole length of the roof, and fell, like drapery, down the sides. The depth of the folds was so vast and the masses thus suspended in the air were so great, that the relief and fullness of these natural hangings were as complete as the fancy could have wished. They were not like concretions or incrustations, mere coverings of the rock; they were the gradual growth of ages, disposed in the most simple and majestic forms, and so rich and large, as to accord with the size and loftiness of the cavern. The stalagmites below and on the sides of the chamber were still more fantastic in their forms, than the pendants above, and struck the eye with the fancied resemblance of vast human figures.

‘ At the end of this great vault, a narrow passage leads down a wet slope of rock; with some difficulty, from the slippery nature of the ground on which I trod, I went a considerable way on, until I came to a place where the descent grew very steep, and my light being nearly exhausted, it seemed best to return. On my way back, I found, half buried in the clay, on one side of the passage, a small antique Patera, of the common black and red ware. The incrustation of the grotto had begun to appear; but it was unbroken, and I was interested in finding this simple relic of the homage once paid to the Corycian nymphs by the ancient inhabitants of the country. The stalagmitic formations on the entrance of this second passage are wild as imagination can conceive, and of the most brilliant whiteness.

‘ It would not require a fancy, lively, like that of the ancient Greeks, to assign this beautiful grotto, as a residence to the nymphs. The stillness which reigns through it, only broken by the gentle sound of the water, which drops from the point of the stalactites, the *ιδαν' δεινότητα* of the grotto of the nymphs in the Odyssey, the dim light admitted by its narrow entrance, and reflected by the white ribs of the roof, with all the miraculous decorations of the interior, would impress the most insensible with feelings of awe, and lead him to attribute the influence of the scene to the presence of some supernatural being.’

We must now close our notice of Mr. Walpole's collection for the present; reserving the consideration of the succeeding papers, in general more closely connected with antiquarian research than those which have preceded them, for our next Number. Those which have been lightly discussed in this article comprize contents far more copious than our limits would enable us to specify.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VI. *All Classes productive of National Wealth; or, the Theories of M. Quesnai, Dr. Adam Smith, and Mr. Gray, concerning the various Classes of Men, as to the Production of Wealth to the Community, analysed and examined, by George Purves, LL.D.* 8vo. pp. 338. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ART. VII. *Gray versus Malthus. The Principles of Population and Production investigated: and the Questions, "Does Population regulate Subsistence, or Subsistence Population?" "Has the latter, in its Increase, a Tendency to augment or diminish the average Quantum of Employment and Wealth?" and "Should Government encourage or check early Marriage?"* discussed. By George Purves, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 530. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

MORE than twenty years have elapsed since the publication of Mr. Malthus's "Essay on the Principles of Population," in its earliest and smallest form: it was noticed by us (Sept. 1798) soon after its appearance; and of the improved and extended edition, in 1803, an ample report will be found in our Numbers at the close of that year and the beginning of 1804. His leading doctrines were that population had a natural tendency to increase much more rapidly than the means of subsistence: that, to prevent this increase, very powerful checks were provided by nature; and that these checks were no other than "vice and misery," to which, in his second edition, the author made the less ungracious addition of moral restraint. From these formidable preliminaries, a variety of gloomy and discouraging inferences resulted; to promote marriages and to multiply births would be to increase mortality and accumulate misery; and the havoc of intemperance or war, or the destruction of life in crowded manufactories or unhealthy hovels, were losses not to be regretted, being requisite as preventive checks, and as "super-seding (we use the author's words) the necessity of great and ravaging epidemics to destroy the redundancy."

The promulgation of such new and unpalatable doctrines could not fail to excite doubt and call forth counter-publications; the principal of which have been successively noticed in our work, and may be found in our new General Index under the head of Malthus, in vol. i. p. 689., or "Population politically considered," in vol. ii. p. 455. None of the replicants, however, were successful in shaking the impression produced by the arguments of Mr. Malthus, supported as they were by very extensive reading and research; until, after a long interval, appeared the elaborate work of Mr Gray on the Happiness of States, reported in our Number for Feb. 1817. That book displayed a large store of politico-econ-

REV. JULY, 1819.

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omic erudition, but was and still is in a great measure lost to the public by its diffuse, desultory, and obscure style. In our notice of it, we intimated a concurrence with the views of the author, wherever we were able to reduce them to an intelligible form: but we expressed our disappointment at the introduction of a vast variety of irrelevant matter; and at the loss of time and labour incurred in dissecting page after page to obtain those results which, with proper care on the part of the writer, might have been conveyed in a few sentences. To remedy this grievous defect, and to disseminate a knowledge of the principles advanced by Mr. Gray, are the object of the two works of Dr. Purves; who, long a convert to the theory of his friend, could not but feel the greatest regret at those unfortunate obscurities which closed the volume of knowledge to the general eye.

The earlier of Dr. P.'s publications treats of the distinction between productive and unproductive labour; that is, it exhibits in a connected shape the views of Mr. G. on this important topic, and follows them up by a variety of remarks on such subjects as the cause of our mercantile distress, — the effect of taxes and public debt on the national wealth, — the most profitable species of circulating medium, &c. The second volume, though of greater size, is less diversified in its objects; being in a manner confined to the discussion of the grand question whether population be, as Mr. Malthus asserts, imperatively limited by subsistence, or as Mr. Gray maintains, has the power of augmenting subsistence *ad libitum*; that is, to as high a degree as population, the increase of which is regulated by other causes, may require. Both volumes may be considered as re-conveying Mr. Gray's ideas in an improved form: many passages are given in abstract; others *à la lettre*: the whole are so connected as to render the two books fit objects for a conjunct report; and we shall begin with the second, as containing the most direct answer to Mr. Malthus's theory.

Is population imperatively limited by the supply of food? The readers of Mr. Malthus will not have forgotten that, in his first chapter, he considers population as increasing, when unchecked, in a geometrical ratio, 1. 2. 4. 8. 16. 32. &c.; while he boldly assumes that the supply of food, under the greatest efforts of human skill and industry, can increase only in an arithmetical ratio, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, &c. 'This,' says Mr. Gray, 'is a loose unphilosophical comparison, even if it were founded in fact: it throws no light whatever on the subject, and is only calculated to mislead. But it is unfounded and incorrect. The progression both of population and subsistence, when compared with the progress of time, may be either

either arithmetical or geometrical, or in any other proportion. It may be either as 1, 2, 3, 4., or 1, 2. 4. 8., or $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, 2., or 1, $1\frac{1}{2}$. 3. 5.: in short, according to every possible ratio, regular or irregular.' — Mr. Malthus's impression that population would, if unchecked, increase in a geometrical ratio, was derived from the case of the United States of America, in which the periodical returns clearly shew that each generation has doubled the numbers of its predecessor. This fact, however, may be explained by other causes, partly by the health attendant on agricultural pursuits, but chiefly by the rare circumstance of unbounded territory being in the possession of men in an advanced state of civilization. The supply of provisions in the United States is ample, and marriages are early; but the latter is not altogether a consequence of the former: were the population more accumulated in towns, early marriage would be less frequent, even with an equal facility of support. When we look around to other countries, and see that the *ratio* of augmentation varies almost throughout, it seems more accordant to reason to consider the United States as an extreme case, and to draw a result (if such an estimate be necessary) of natural increase from the medium of a given number of countries.

Dr. Smith and other political economists divide the wants of mankind into three heads, — *food, clothing, and lodging*: of these, says Mr. G., (p. 138.) about one-third of the expence goes to food in most English families of the middling class: but among the lower orders, who can afford little more than necessaries, the half nearly must be allotted for food, leaving proportionally less for clothing and lodging. Mr. Gray thus admits that food is by far the greatest of the component parts of human wants; and the question at issue regards the length to which the supply of it may be augmented. Its increase, says Mr. Malthus, can never exceed the arithmetical *ratio*: but Mr. Gray maintains that this increase is subject to no other *ratio* than the amount of labour bestowed on agriculture. In a state of nature, that state in which, to judge from the conclusions of Mr. Malthus, the means of subsistence ought to be most abundant because population is so thin, the earth seems in general to be very infertile; possessing productiveness only along the banks of rivers, or in the small spots that are occasionally enriched by irrigation, or natural manure. Fertility is the consequence of the application of human labour; and the natural productiveness of the soil of almost any country is not one-twentieth, or, in Mr. G.'s opinion, not one-thirtieth part of the artificial productiveness, which may be created by the skill and labour of man;

man; — a point too obvious to be much argued, did it not shew that subsistence in itself is altogether passive, and that there must be a fundamental error in that theory which assumes so positively that it is a deficiency of subsistence that checks population.

• “Population, whatever be the ratio of its increase, carries in itself the means of finding sufficient food. Its increase supplies it with an additional number of hands. Only about one out of six or seven of the new persons on the average of life, as with respect to the old, is wanted to cultivate, in order to feed himself and the rest. The other five or six become effective members of the community in other modes of employment, and while they increase the consumption, tend to increase the supply also. An increase of population not only increases the demand for subsistence, and consequently, for an additional number of cultivators, but by rendering the number of those who wish to be farmers, greater, urges them to attempt cultivating lands, which in a stagnant or decreasing state of population they would never have thought of doing. This increase also, by augmenting capital, skill, and manure, enables the old and the new cultivators to produce additional supplies adequate to the additional demand. And thus an increase of population regularly forces up the quantity of subsistence at least to a level with itself, but in most cases higher.”

‘Until, therefore, the earth is peopled to the highest amount which it is capable of feeding, or while there is any uncultivated, or imperfectly cultivated soil, population has the regulating power over subsistence in its own hands. As far as depends on subsistence, it may increase at any rate, however rapid. It has only to apply more of its members to the work of cultivation, and it can obtain what it wants.’

A great part of the world, says Mr. G. in another place, is as yet uncultivated, and hardly any part of it is cultivated to its extent. Even Europe is not peopled to the fifth of the numbers which, according to a moderate estimate, (p. 422.) it is capable of supporting. Nor does the average price of food indicate any symptom of a regular excess in the demand above the supply: the ordinary profits of the farmer are not greater than the ordinary profits of the merchant, manufacturer, or other classes of the community: were they otherwise, the sons of farmers and country labourers would not flock in such numbers to town, in quest of a different occupation, but would remain at home, and increase the supply of subsistence. The truth is that, instead of subsistence being inferior to population, the same equality prevails between the two that we observe in every thing else; and additional food, when required, is raised by the same mode of exertion, and without greater difficulty than an additional supply of *manufactures*. In certain seasons, (as in 1799, 1809, and 1811.)

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we have seen a shortness of supply approaching to scarcity: but this arises from no permanent cause, and seldom fails to be counterbalanced by years of superabundance, such as 1814 and 1815. What a field for extension of produce is still open in England and on the Continent!—in England, by adopting in the rich countries of the west and south the improved tillage of the east and north: on the Continent, by bringing under culture vast tracts which have hitherto been almost entirely neglected. Assuredly, if we seek in either theory for an explanation of the existing distress of England, we shall not find it in that of Mr. Malthus; a deficiency of subsistence forming no part of our present grievances.

We come next to the very interesting question whether an increase of population, as Mr. Malthus apprehends, has a tendency to deteriorate the condition of the great mass: it affords, says Mr. Gray, if any faith may be placed in experience, more effective employment to all ranks, and augments greatly that middling class which forms the strongest and happiest part of a community. In a thinly peopled tract, such as the Highlands of Scotland, extremes predominate: the lord on one side, the vassals on the other; the middling class being comparatively insignificant. England, on the contrary, one of the most populous, and doubtless the most wealthy of all countries in the world, exhibits the middling class in all its pride; and the returns under the property-tax shew a complete table of imperceptible gradations in the incomes of families. How different from the England of the feudal ages, when all power was vested in the barons; and when the commons, or middling class, were not of importance enough to hold a share in the national representation, until brought forwards by the crown in both countries as a counterpoise to the aristocracy. That augmented population has the tendency supposed by Mr. Gray is shewn by the example of almost every country in the civilized world; particularly by the history of Europe for the last century, in which there has been, almost without one exception, a marked increase both of comfort and of numbers. The reason is that the artificial wants of individuals increase in proportion as they become more numerous; in other words, their desires grow with their knowledge, and with the means of gratifying them. What a contrast is exhibited by the denuded state of the Irish cottager, and the multifarious accommodations of the citizens of Paris or London! These additional wants necessarily create additional employment for others, and the result is a constant increase of the means of wealth.

The following tabular sketch exhibits, in a short compass, the principal tenets on each side:

Mr. Malthus's leading Ideas.

Population has a natural tendency to increase faster than subsistence.

The natural progress of population is according to the geometrical ratio 1. 2. 4. 8. 16., as evinced in the case of the United States of America.

The amount of subsistence regulates the amount of population.

Population has a tendency to overstock, and to lessen the average amount of employment to individuals.

The increase of population has a natural tendency to promote poverty.

The diseases and evils generated by the increase of population arise chiefly from poverty and a scarcity of food.

Emigration. — This topic is one of those which places the opposite theories of Mr. M. and Mr. G. in a clear light, and is unfortunately of too much interest at present to the British public. That the emigrations recorded in history have, in general, arisen from causes very different from want of subsistence, is apparent from this short paragraph:

Mr. Gray's leading Ideas.

Population has a tendency to increase, but this increase carries in itself the power of supplying its wants as well for subsistence as otherwise.

We have no rule for estimating the natural progress of population; the United States are a solitary case; no other country increases in that ratio; and, if an estimate is to be made, it would be more fair to take the average of a given number of countries.

The amount of population regulates the amount of subsistence in the same way as it regulates the supply of clothing and housing; because, with the exception of occasional famines, the amount of subsistence raised depends on the labour of mankind.

The increase of population tends uniformly to increase the average amount of employment to individuals.

The increase of population has an uniform tendency to increase wealth, not collectively only, but individually.

The diseases and evils generated by the increase of population arise chiefly from an overflow of wealth, and habits of luxury.

‘Emigration, except in certain local cases, is no proof whatever of a redundancy of population in reference to the materials of subsistence.

subsistence. It prevails chiefly in thinly-peopled districts and countries. In those which are very populous it exists in a much inferior degree, and in them it is generally much more than counterbalanced by immigration. It seems to have flourished most among states in the earliest periods of population, when it was most useful for peopling the earth; and in proportion as nations approach nearer to their complement, it gradually decays. It springs from a spirit of restlessness and discontent which is found to inspire so considerable a portion of our race; and nature undoubtedly intended it to assist in promoting the peopling of the globe as well as commercial intercourse. But it is not really necessary, on account of subsistence, till a country has reached its complement both with respect to home culture and importation.

Dr. Purves lays it down as a rule that the more populous a district or country becomes, the smaller is the emigration from either; and he adduces, in support of this apparent contradiction, the examples of several highly peopled countries, England, France, India, and China; as well as the more familiar case of that continued movement from country to town, which we see prevailing so extensively all over this kingdom. That an increase of population, on a given spot, diversifies and augments the means of employment, is clearly manifested (pp. 169. 193. 207.) by a variety of facts, and in particular by the activity of great towns, contrasted with the slow habits and frequent want of work in villages and the country. Fortunate were it for England that no other emigration were prevalent: but it is by expatriation that many of those, who at present suffer from our financial pressure, seek relief: the annuitants go to the Continent, while the agriculturists and mechanics repair to the United States. How painful is it to think that this diminution of numbers (though advantageous to the individual) has no effect in lessening the pressure on those who remain: but that it has, on the contrary, a tendency to increase it, by abridging first the number who pay taxes, and next the means of raising that income out of which taxes are to be paid. To imagine that the departure of a particular individual or class of individuals is advantageous, by opening to others the means of beneficial employment, is altogether erroneous: the true policy, at least in a national sense, being that all should remain, and that all should aid each other in bearing the common burden. It is by connection and mutual co-operation that individuals acquire a competency, and that nations obtain power: those who consider a decrease of numbers as no disadvantage look on men only as venders, or as competitors for productive business, without viewing them in the light of consumers or customers. Again, emigration carries off, in a great measure,

the formed and grown up part of the population; that is, of the part on whom the care of nurture and the expence of education have been already bestowed. Colonization is liable to several of the objections that apply to emigration: but in general a connection subsists between the mother-country and the colonists, leading to active intercourse, and to a demand for a part at least of those supplies which would have been required if the emigrants had remained at home.

What labour is productive, and what is unproductive? —

No question in political economy has been more discussed or more disputed than the distinction between productive and unproductive labour. The French *économistes* gave the character of productive to agriculture only; while Dr. Smith went much farther, and extended it to all manufacturing labour, but denied it to a very numerous portion of society, — the menial servants. “The labour of the manufacturer adds,” he says, “to the value of the materials with which he works, while that of the latter adds to the value of nothing.” Dr. S. has here evidently allowed himself to be misled by appearances; the produce of the manufacturer being exhibited in a substantial and vendible commodity; while that of the menial servant, though less apparent, and even requiring some reflection to discover its existence, is not the less valuable, inasmuch as it contributes to the greater efficiency of the master, the clerks, the artisans, or others in whose behalf it is exerted, and a portion of whose time must otherwise be sacrificed to do that which the servant does for them. Dr. S. goes on to apply the epithet of unproductive to several of the higher orders in society, such as lawyers, physicians, military men, &c.; as if the exertions of these persons did not save the obviously productive classes, agriculturists, manufacturers, and merchants, that time which they would otherwise be obliged to devote to attempts to discharge such duties themselves. Physicians are certainly not unproductive, unless the science of medicine be wholly superfluous; nor can military men be classed under that ignoble description, until the time comes when nations shall be agreed on the inutility of war, and that military establishments can be dismissed. The force of these reasons was felt by M. Say; who, considering that such services, though they left no substantial or permanent result, did not the less contribute to the public welfare, admitted them without hesitation to the productive class, and declared that name to be due to all labour which could be called “useful.” This was a more satisfactory definition, certainly, than any of the preceding, but is liable to two objections; first, that people are

are often not agreed as to the distinction between the *useful* and the *ornamental*; and, next, that, in certain conjunctures, articles or services avowedly useful may not be in demand. This consideration brings us to the fourth and last definition, viz. that of Mr. Gray; who declares that the proper index of value, the quality which gives a title to the name of productive, is the "chargeability" of an article, or the power of procuring for it a price and a profit. That this is a very comprehensive definition will be apparent from the ensuing extract; in which our readers, if they can forgive a few novel and quaint expressions, will perceive the *disjecta membra* of an able investigator:

' Mr. Gray maintains the productiveness of all classes of circulators in the fullest extent. According to his views, there is no actual line in nature, which makes any distinction whatever among the various classes as to productiveness. No class, however different in form may be its circuland, or means of charging, is in possession of any wealth-creating power, which is not derived, directly or indirectly, from the others, and possessed in like manner by them. Nay, farther, on the present arrangements of nature, it is utterly impossible that any such line can exist. From the mode of forming, deriving, and using price in these arrangements, each class is necessarily productive of additional wealth to the community; that is, renders all the rest more wealthy than they would be without it.

' The following are the outlines of his theory on the subject of circulation, and productiveness in point of wealth.

' Every human being is a circulator, either directly of himself*, or indirectly by the agency of others, and is alike subject to the laws of circulation.

' Every circulator is connected with society in two ways: 1. by means of his income, and, 2. by means of his expenditure. He is a seller and buyer in one: selling in order to buy, and buying in order to sell.

' The article or medium by which he is a circulator, Mr. Gray terms his circuland. This consists of "the materials on which labour and skill are exerted, labour and skill themselves, and the produce of labour and skill."

' Circuland "enables the possessor to charge for it, or to draw on the common fund." This common fund consists of the various incomes of the circulators, or of the prices they charge on one another for the articles in which they respectively deal. Throughout the whole mass of circulators charge is met by charge.

' * The female circulator is by no means excluded here, but for the sake of brevity, she is supposed to be included under the male term.'

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'The chargeability of circulant is thus the sole quality which produces wealth. All other qualities belonging to it, or combinations of them, have a wealth-producing influence only by means of their operating on, or by, this. They affect the quantum, not the reality, of productiveness.

'Throughout all classes,' says Dr. P. in another place, 'what is expenditure to one individual or class, is the source of employment and income to the others. This is the immutable law of nature, and it is the grand power which produces all the movements of circulation. — Let the inquirer only put these necessary questions: By whom is any circulator, or class of circulators, paid? And how are the payers enabled to pay him or them? And he will find the productive theory close round him with irresistible force: there is no possibility of escape.'

Amount of our national Income. — From these remarks on the theory of productive labour, we proceed to the practical and very interesting question of the annual return of property and labour in the British dominions. Mr. Colquhoun, whose work we reported at some length in our Number for December, 1815, sanguine in this as in other respects, boldly calculates the annual property created in Great Britain and Ireland at more than 400 millions sterling, of which the half arises from agriculture. M. Say, in his essay *De l'Angleterre et des Anglais*, (noticed in our Appendix to Vol. lxxviii.) takes a very different view of the question; and, after several calculations, founded chiefly on the income-tax, he computes the annual return of our productive labour at only 224 millions. Between these conflicting estimates, Mr. Gray steers a middle course; founding his computation, like M. Say, on the returns of the income-tax, but making some very important additions. The population of Great Britain, exclusive of Ireland, consists of fully 2,600,000 families; of whom only 628,000 were returned as liable to the tax, that is, as enjoying incomes of more than 50l. a-year. Now, considerable reductions were allowed in the tax in cases of income from 50l. to 200l.; and for these Mr. G. makes a large addition, followed by one still larger for the wages of the lower classes; who, to the number of nearly two millions of families, escaped the tax *in toto*: but he takes their wages at an average of 35l. or 40l. a-year. These computations are inserted in the Appendix (pp. 311, 312.) to Dr. P.'s book, and are enveloped in all the provoking obscurity which marks Mr. Gray's work on the *Happiness of States*: but the following short statement has the advantage of clearness, and approaches to Mr. G.'s results as far as we can comprehend them.

Income

Income in Great Britain subject to the property-tax, - - -	£140,000,000
Add for all allowances, evasions, and omissions, - - -	50,000,000
Wages of the lower orders, exempt from the tax - - -	70,000,000
Ireland, income and wages of all descriptions, - - -	40,000,000
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	£300,000,000

Of the respective proportions paid by the different classes of our population, some idea may be formed from this conjectural statement by Mr. G.:

The classes supplying subsistence, 30 per cent.	£90,000,000
The classes deriving their income through government by means of taxes, - - -	} 25 ditto 75,000,000
The classes supplying clothing and the like, - - -	
The classes supplying housing and furniture, - - -	} 14 ditto 42,000,000
The classes employed in teaching (including the clergy), in law, in physic, in writing, painting, engraving, and the like, and in service, - - -	
	} 17 ditto 51,000,000
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	£300,000,000'

The peace has necessarily made a very material deduction from this amount, first in the army and navy, which are comprehended by Mr. G. in the classes paid by government: next in the rents of land and houses, which on an average have fallen at least 20 per cent.; and, lastly, from the general unprofitableness of various manufacturing and mercantile branches, which, in time of war, were in full activity. These explain but too clearly the stagnation and distress which were so severely felt in 1816, and which, notwithstanding the temporary improvement of the last year, still press so heavily on the country.

In our next Number, we shall make a farther exposition of the doctrine of Messrs. Gray and Purves, and conclude by stating several important qualifications, with which its reception ought, in our opinion, to be accompanied.

[To be continued.]

ART. VIII. *The Transactions of the Linnéan Society of London.*
Vol. XII. Part I. 4to. pp. 290. 11. 11s. 6d. sewed. Long-
man and Co.

WE have pleasure in observing that this portion of the records of the Linnéan Society contains many interesting papers, and some which are distinguished by their depth and accuracy of scientific research. It commences with a communication intitled

Some Information respecting the Lignum Rhodium of Pococke's Travels. By Sir James Edward Smith, the President. — In examining the papers of the late Dr. Sibthorp, with a view to the publication of the *Flora Græca*, Sir J. Smith has discovered some curious particulars respecting the tree which Pococke has named the *Lignum Rhodium*. The identical tree described by that traveller, in his remarks on Cyprus, (Description of the East, Vol. ii. p. 230.) was seen by Dr. Sibthorp in the garden of the convent among the mountains of Antiphoniti. "The Eugumenos of the convent," says Dr. Sibthorp, "a very old man, offered himself as my conductor; and leading me a few paces below the convent, into a garden now covered with rubbish, he pointed out a tree which upon examination I found to be *Liquidambar Styraciflua*. The trunk of it was much hacked. Different bits of it had been carried off by the curious or superstitious, as an ornament to their cabinets or churches. This was probably the same tree that Pococke had seen." An examination of specimens in the Herbarium of Dr. Sibthorp, and a pencil-sketch by Mr. Bauer, served to convince the President of the accuracy of the opinion that the *Lignum Rhodium* of Pococke is no other than *Liquidambar Styraciflua* of Linné. It is extremely difficult, however, to conjecture in what manner this plant could have found its way to Cyprus; unless we suppose that the Venetians introduced it from the new continent into that island while they were in possession of it. Sir James Smith remarks: "Dr. Sibthorp, like his predecessor, found this tree forming seed, yet it does not appear to have scattered its progeny over the neighbourhood, as in so fine a climate it might have been expected to have done: though I have never heard of its bringing any seed to perfection in England, where it rarely even blossoms."

Of the Formation of the Vegetable Epidermis. By the Reverend Patrick Keith, F. L. S. — This short but luminous paper, by the author of "Physiological Botany," (see M. R. Vol. lxxxii. N. S. p. 126.) is dedicated to the consideration of M. Mirbel's hypothesis of the formation of the epidermis
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of plants. It is the opinion of that eminent French phytologist, as stated in his *Traité d'Anat. et de Physiol. Veg.*, and subsequently in his *Elémens de Physiologie Végétale et de Botanique*, (see M. R. Appendix, Vol. lxxxvi. p. 462.) that the vegetable epidermis is not a distinct and peculiar membrane, but merely the indurated surface of the parenchyma, changed in its appearance by a continual exposure to the air. Without doubt, this account of the matter agrees with the real state of the exterior covering of the trunk of most trees: but we ought to recollect that this is by no means the epidermis of the plant. Indeed, Mr. Keith places the true nature of the vegetable cuticle in a distinct and indisputable point of view, by directing our attention to some obvious and well established facts.

‘ If it be true,’ he observes in the paper before us, ‘ that the epidermis is nothing more than the pellicle formed on the external surface of the parenchyma, indurated by the action of the air, then it will follow that an epidermis never can be completely formed till such time as it has been exposed to that action. But it is known that the epidermis exists in a state of complete perfection, in cases where it could not possibly have been affected by the action of the external air. If you take a rose bud or bud of any other flower before it expands, and strip it of its external covering, you will find that the petals and other inclosed parts of the fructification are as completely furnished with their epidermis as any other parts of the plant, and yet they have never been exposed to the action of the air. The same may be said of the epidermis of the seed while yet in the seed-vessel.’

As an additional argument against the supposed efficacy of the air in producing the epidermis, Mr. Keith states the fact which is known to every gardener, that, in cases of wounds, the epidermis is always most readily re-produced when the air is carefully excluded.

On the Classification of the natural Tribe of Insects Notonectides, with Descriptions of the British Species. By William Elford Leach, M.D. F.R.S. and F.L.S. — We feel much indebted to Dr. Leach for the luminous and accurate view which he has here presented, of the natural tribe of aquatic insects mentioned above. By Linné, and his followers, all the species were comprehended under the single genus *Notonecta*. Geoffroy afterward separated *Notonecta* into two genera: De Geer, on the other hand, confounded the insects of this tribe with *Nepa* and *Naucoris*; while Olivier and Latreille placed them in their family of *Hydrocorisæ*; and it was not until Dr. Leach’s entomological contribution to the Edinburgh Encyclopædia, that a separate tribe was established

established under the term *Notonectides*. The place which he has assigned to them is in the order *Hemiptera*, Suborder *Hydrocorisæ*. The tribe *Notonectides* is subdivided by him into two families; the first containing the genera *Notonecta* and *Plea*, — the second, *Sigara* and *Corixa*: — making thus four genera, each of which has its species and varieties. The descriptions are drawn up with the characteristic neatness and accuracy of the author.

Some Remarks on the Natural History of the Black Stork, for the first Time captured in Great Britain. By George Montague, Esq. — This gentleman has presented the Society with a very amusing and accurate account of the Black Stork (*Ardea Nigra*); having been indebted to his friend Mr. Austin, 'who rescued it from plebeian hands,' for the possession of this winged stranger, never before (as far as we know) caught in these islands.

'Like the White Stork,' says Mr. M., 'it frequently rests upon one leg; and if alarmed particularly by the approach of a dog, it makes a considerable noise by the reiterated snapping of the bill, similar to that species. It soon became docile, and would follow its feeder for a favourite morsel, an eel. When very hungry, it crouches, resting the whole length of the legs upon the ground, and supplicantly seems to demand food by nodding the head, flapping its unwieldy pinions, and forcibly blowing the air from the lungs with audible expirations. — From the manner in which it is observed to search the grass with its bill, there can be no doubt that reptiles form part of its natural food; even mice, worms, and the larger insects, probably add to its usual repast. When searching in thick grass or in the mud for its prey, the bill is kept partly open. — I never observed this bird attempt to swim; but it will wade up to the belly, and occasionally thrust the whole head and neck under water after its prey.'

Some remarkable changes in the plumage of this bird are mentioned by the author, and ascribed with every appearance of probability to the new situation of captivity in which it has been placed.

Some Account of the Tantalus Ephouskyca, a rare American Bird. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M.D. F.M.L.S. — Though Dr. Barton has hitherto in vain endeavoured to procure a specimen of this bird from the country of the Creek Indians, he is not without hopes of ultimately succeeding in his object. In the meanwhile, he has presented to the Society an excellent drawing of this animal, by Mr. W. Bartram, accompanied with a short notice of it by the same gentleman. It inhabits the low shores and swamps of the river St. Juan, and of the lakes of Georgia and Florida.

In size it resembles a large domestic fowl, and on a near inspection appears speckled. The neck is long and slender; and the legs are long and bare of feathers, like those of the Bittern, of a black or dark lead colour. We agree in the propriety of referring this bird to the genus *Tantalus*, but would object to the specific appellation *Ephouskyca*, which we cannot help considering as barbarous. It is an Indian term, the import of which is *Crying Bird*. Dr. Barton, however, is not likely to abandon this name, which he regards as corroborating his theory of the derivation of the Creek and other North American languages from the Chaldean, Hebrew, and Persian: but it would be wholly out of place for us to enter at present into the discussion of such subjects.

Observations on the Orchis Militaris of Linnæus. By Mr. J. E. Bicheno, F.L.S.—In these observations Mr. Bicheno has endeavoured, with considerable success, to point out the true *Orchis militaris*, distinguishing it from *Fusca* and *Tephrosanthos*. Much obscurity has long hung over the greater part of this genus, and we cannot help thinking that something still remains to be done for its further elucidation.

Glyphis and Chiodection, two new Genera of the Family of Lichenes, with Descriptions and Figures of the Species hitherto discovered. By Erik Acharius, M.D. F.M.L.S.—These two new genera appear to us to be satisfactorily established in the paper before us, and the descriptions are illustrated by beautiful coloured figures. *Glyphis Labyrinthica* was brought by Professor Afzelius from Sierra Leone, on the bark of an unknown tree, to which the natives give the name of *Duffa*. *Glyphis Tricosa* seems to have been found by Swartz in the West Indies. *Glyphis Cicatricosa* is like the first found in Guinea; and *Glyphis Favulosa* in America, on the bark of *Croton Cascarilla*. *Chiodection Sphærale* grows in America, on the bark of *Cinchona Flava*; and *Chiodection Seriale* on that of the *Angustura* (*Bonplandia Trifoliata*).

On the Power of Sarracenia Adunca to entrap Insects. By James Macbride, M.D. of South Carolina.—We are here furnished with some interesting particulars respecting *Sarracenia adunca*, as well as some other species of the same genus. The insects appear to be allured to the mouth of the tube of the leaf of this plant, by a sweet honey-like fluid which is secreted at its margin, and for a quarter of an inch downwards on its inner surface. Soon after it has entered the tube, the fly totters, slips, and falls to the bottom; where it is either immediately drowned, or attempts in vain to climb up the side of the tube against the points of the hairs with which

which the surface is clothed. In some parts of South Carolina, where the plant grows abundantly, it is used as a fly-catcher; and the number of insects entrapped in this way often becomes so great, that it is necessary to pour in a quantity of water for the purpose of destroying them. All animals, however, that enter these tubes of the *Sarracenia*, do not become imprisoned in them: for Dr. Macbride tells us that one species of *Phalæna* takes shelter in them during the day, and comes forth in the evening. Spiders, too, repair to these stores of dead insects to prey on them, and readily make their escape by means of their threads. The Doctor was long at a loss to discover the origin of the numerous maggots which he saw at the bottom of these tubes; until he remarked a fly moving rapidly from one plant to another, and at length ejecting over the margin of one a larva which proceeded with a brisk vermicular motion to the bottom of the tube.

Observations on the Nature and Formation of the Stone incrusting the Skeletons which have been found in the Island of Guadaloupe; with some Account of the Origin of these Skeletons. In a Report made to General Ernouf, late Governor of the Colony. Communicated by the Rt. Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. &c. &c. — This stoney incrustation is shewn by the author of this paper (which is given in French) to be altogether of new and even recent formation. He describes it as in four different states of agglutination, the last possessing the hardness of stone, and composed of carbonate of lime united to the muriates of lime and soda. With every appearance of truth, he attributes this compact formation to the effect of the influx and reflux of the tide over deposits of shells, aided by the great evaporation caused by the powerful heats of a West-Indian sun. The skeletons, like the substance incrusting them, are not of a very antient date, and can be traced back with apparent accuracy to an occurrence within the recollection of the fathers of people still living. The writer was informed, by a person of credibility, that his father, who died at a very advanced age, not only remembered an Indian village near the situation at which the skeletons were found, but the circumstance of a battle between two tribes of Indians, in which many of the combatants were slain; and the old man stated that, having had occasion to visit the spot some time after this affair, which took place about the year 1710 or 1711, he found 15 or 20 bodies stretched on the ground. The account which the author of the paper gives of these skeletons is still farther strengthened by the manner in which they have been discovered, scattered along the

the sea-shore, by the separate members that have been picked up, and by the various positions in which these skeletons have been found, unlike to the appearances that would have been presented if they had been interred. Besides human bones, arrows, bows, and hatchets, have been discovered in the same situation, as in a field of battle.

Descriptions of a new Genus of Plants named Araujia, and of a new Species of Passiflora. By Felix de Avellar Brotero, Prof. of Botany in the University of Coimbra, F.M.L.S. — *Araujia* is described by Professor Brotero at great length, and an excellent engraving of it is also given. It is a native of Peru, whence it was sent under the name of *Apocynum Peruvianum*. In the King's Botanic Garden at Lisbon, it flowers in autumn, but does not ripen its fruit till spring. For some years past, the entire plant has stood the winter, and it is now completely naturalized. It is inodorous, but acrid, abounding in milky juice, and in the Professor's opinion it is poisonous. — The new species of *Passiflora* is named *Racemosa*, from the manner in which its flowers are disposed; and the description, which is very minute, is also illustrated by an engraving. This plant was discovered in Brazil by Mr. Woodford, by whom it was brought to Lisbon, and communicated to Professor Brotero.

Some Observations on the Natural Family of Plants called Compositæ. By Robert Brown, Esq. F.R.S. &c. — In this able and elaborate paper, it has been the author's principal object to communicate such general observations on the subject of *Compositæ* as have either not yet been published by M. Cassini, or respecting which he considers himself to have anticipated that writer in the *General Remarks on the Botany of New Holland*. To these he has added comments on some genera of *Compositæ* which occur repeatedly under different names in late systematic works; or the structure and limits of which appear to be imperfectly understood. His first observation refers to the nerves or vessels of the corolla in this family of plants; and his purport here is to establish his right to originality of remark, which has been disputed by M. Cassini. Different authors are shewn by Mr. Brown to have figured the nerves of these florets, although seldom accurately: but none of them, till the time of Mirbel, made use of this disposition in forming the natural character of *Compositæ*. His work, however, was published subsequently to that of Mr. Brown. — On reviewing the facts that have been adduced, it appears to us that Mr. B. was the first botanist who fully perceived the real disposition of these

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fasciculi, and rendered them available as a ground of distinction.

Mr. Brown next proceeds to make some remarks on the aestivation of *Compositæ*, or the condition of the corolla before it has expanded. He has borrowed from Seckkuhr the remark that the pollen of *Ligulatæ* is angular, while that of *Tubulosæ* is spherical. The observation is curious, and may prove an auxiliary in constructing the natural character of this family. An interesting remark is also given, relative to the internal structure of the ovarium in *Compositæ*. In addition to the circumstance of its containing a single erect ovulum, which has been long noticed, Mr. Brown states that, in the greater part of *Compositæ*, whose ovarium he has examined, he has remarked two very slender filiform cords, which, originating from opposite points of the base of the ovulum or of its short foot-stalk, run up, and are more or less connected with the lateral parietes of the ovarium, until they unite at the top of its cavity immediately under the style; between which and the ovulum a connection is thus formed' (P. 89.)

The concluding observation of Mr. B. refers to the order of expansion in the florets of *Compositæ*; and here he has adduced, in illustration, numerous interesting facts drawn from the inflorescence of other families of plants. We have not room, however, to enter at greater length into this subject. — The latter part of the paper is occupied with a very acute critical consideration of many genera of *Compositæ*, which have hitherto been ill understood, and some of them presented under different names even by eminent botanists. The research and accuracy, by which this portion of Mr. Brown's labours is marked, demand our warm acknowledgments; although our limits will not permit us to lay even the substance of his extensive observations before our readers.

On some remarkable Deviations from the usual Structure of Seeds and Fruits. By the Same. — The object of this paper, of which the greater part was offered to the Society in 1813, though afterward withdrawn for the purpose of being rendered more complete, is to shew the importance of carefully examining the early state of the ovarium, even before impregnation; because, without doing this, as the author well remarks, we shall often fall into errors in our attempts to deduce affinities and establish genera from the structure of the seed. The most important point, here brought under review, is the anomaly arising from the early bursting of the ovarium, and the consequent appearance as if the seeds had been originally naked. A plate of the fruit of *Leontice thalictrifolia* is given, which

which explains the origin of Michx's error; who was led by an imperfect inspection of the fruit of this plant to change its name to *Caulophyllum thictocladum*.

Remarks on two Genera of Plants as being referred to the Family of the Rosaceae, in a Letter from Mr. A. P. de Coudré, Professor of Nat. Hist. in the Acad. of Gronow, Sen. Sen. to Sir James Ed. Smith, P.L.S. — In this very courteous and able letter, the excellent author of the *Systema Naturae* (see M. R. vol. lxxxvi. p. 458.) has performed a meritorious service to botany, by pointing out the true alliances of *Corylus Japonicus* and *Tigarea tridentata*; and commemorating the labours of two very deserving botanists, by naming the former of these plants *Kerria Japonica*, and the latter *Purshia tridentata*. Sir James Smith had shewn that *Corylus Japonicus* was the plant described by Linné under the name of *Rubus Japonicus*: but, as M. de C. well remarks, the plant in question cannot belong to *Rubus*, because its fruit has no tendency to become fleshy, and its general habit and colour remove it from that genus. Mr. Pursh, who first described *Tigarea tridentata*, certainly has not been fortunate in the genus to which he refers it; since *Tigarea* belongs to the *Dilleniaceae*, while the plant which we are now considering has all the characters of the Rosaceous family. Indeed, *Tigarea* of Aublet has been suppressed by Willdenow, and united to *Tetracera*. — The two genera, *Kerria* and *Purshia*, have many points of affinity; and M. de C. hints at the probability of their being one day united. It has, we confess, long been our anxious wish that every exertion should be made to prevent the increase of genera and species, unless where absolutely and imperiously demanded. We should be inclined even to make some slight sacrifices, for the purpose of limiting the subdivision of a science which already threatens to overwhelm us with the extreme minuteness of its details.

A Synopsis of the British Species of Rosa. By Joseph Woods, Esq. F.L.S. — Like many other genera that had been long overlooked, the genus *Rosa* has of late received a great share of the attention of botanists; and in the present paper Mr. Woods has given a very ample view of it. He was first led to pay particular attention to the Rose-tribe, by observing the appearance which they put on in Westmoreland, so very different from their features in the vicinity of London; and, in his division of this genus, he has been guided by the following circumstances, which he considers as the most constant: 'The presence or absence of setae on the stem; the petioles straight or hooked, equal or unequal; the tendency towards the formation of the upper stipules without leaves,

leaves, or at least with leaves of fewer folioles, and expanding into bractææ; the simple or compound form of the leaflets of the calyx, and the simple or compound serratures of the leaves.' The number of species here enumerated and described is twenty-six; while those that were given by the President of the Linnéan Society, in the last edition of his *Compendium Floræ Britannicæ*, amount only to sixteen. Together with the descriptions of the species, we have complete notices regarding synonyms, with such additional information as could be obtained from an inspection of the best Herbaria in the kingdom. On the whole, we consider this synopsis as forming a valuable addition to the knowledge of our indigenous plants. Yet it is to be feared that the author has been seduced into the unnecessary multiplication of species; — an error which is very apt to occur from devoting even for a time a steadfast and undivided attention to any one genus. Though we may flatter ourselves with the increase of botanical knowledge by the minute discrimination of species, there is danger that it may be carried too far; and that in no long time the accumulation of species may become so exuberant as to overwhelm the memory, and preclude the possibility of any individual acquiring a knowledge of more than a very small proportion of this interesting field of nature: or, perhaps, its effect may be wholly to drive from the study of botany all but minds of a dull and plodding character. It is the duty, therefore, of those who lead in this science, to raise by their advice and example a barrier against the inordinate extension of botanical division; which, if not checked, will render useless that fabric which it was originally intended to enlarge and beautify.

A Botanical History of the Genus Tofieldia. By Sir James Edward Smith, &c. — This excellent paper is prefaced by some pertinent remarks on the importance and necessity of the study of species, and the elucidation even of those genera with which we are most familiar. 'I cannot,' observes Sir James, 'too often protest against those more tempting roads to immortality, gratuitous changes of names and speculations in classification. The former can only be permitted, if at all, to the most eminent leaders and reformers of botanical science, who may be capable of acquiring supreme authority in the latter.' The genus *Tofieldia* has occasioned much difference of opinion among botanists, regarding its name and character, as well as respecting its species. The name preferred by Sir J. E. Smith was first given by Mr. Hudson, in honour of Mr. Tofield, a country-gentleman in the neighbourhood of Doncaster, who was a zealous cultivator of the science, and discovered

discovered in that vicinity the *Vicia Bithynica*. A very excellent history of *Tofieldia* is supplied in the present paper; and, after having duly considered the generic characters, much labour is bestowed in describing and elucidating the species. Six are enumerated, and an accurate plate represents *Tofieldia stenopetala* and *T. glutinosa*.

A Monograph of the Genus Pæonia. By the late George Anderson, Esq. F.L.S. &c. — This paper presents a very learned and able view of *Pæonia*; a genus which Linné, in the first edition of his *Species Plantarum*, most unaccountably passed over as containing only one species; though he afterward admitted the *tenusifolia* and *anomala*. Since that period, Retzius, Pallas, and Murray, have more especially attended to this genus: but the late Mr. Anderson, perceiving that much still remained to be done, with the aid of his friend Mr. Sabine, collected and cultivated every species and variety of *Pæonia* that could be procured. The result of their labours is here offered to us; and thirteen species are discriminated, with many subordinate varieties. Mr. Sabine, in a postscript, adds some farther particulars, and more especially remarks on M. de Candolle's thirteen species, described in his *Systema Naturale*. — On Mr. S. also has been imposed the melancholy task of announcing the death of his valued friend Mr. Anderson, which occurred suddenly, in consequence of a fall from a carriage, January 10. 1817.

ART. IX. *A History of England, from the First Invasion by the Romans to the Accession of Henry VIII.* By the Reverend John Lingard. 3 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Mawman. 1819.

THE assurance, which Mr. Lingard gives us in his preface to this work, that 'he has spared no pains in consulting the most ancient historians, and comparing their narratives with such authentic documents as are known to exist,' leads us to observe that England is without a literary treasure, with which most European nations are supplied,—a complete collection of her antient historians. At the first revival of letters, the classical enthusiasts of the times were absorbed in Greek and Roman lore, and turned with disgust and contempt from their vernacular annalists: but, by degrees, the importance of these documents attracted their attention. In 1569, the celebrated Peter Pethou published the Chronicle of Otto Frisingensis, and some other historical documents; and, in a letter to Cujacius, he announced an intention of editing a complete collection of the historians of the middle age, and

called on the learned for their assistance. He did not execute his design, but it was adopted by others.

Many large collections of the historians of GERMANY were formed before the end of the 16th century. In the beginning of the 17th, *Marquardus Freherus* published his "*Rerum Germanicarum Scriptores*," in three large volumes in folio, which eclipsed all the preceding collections; and a new edition of it, with great additions, was given by *Burchardus Struvinus* in 1617. Subsequent collections have also appeared; the *Scriptores Rerum Brunsvicensium* were printed by Leibnitz in 1707, 1710, and 1711; and, though the work principally relates to the history of the Brunswick family, it is always ranked among the general histories of Germany. Any materials that escaped the diligence of the authors, whom we have mentioned, found a place in Eccard's *Corpus Historicum mediæ ævi*. These publications contain not fewer than 300 different histories, chronicles, and other historical documents respecting Germany; and there are many collections that we have not specified, some of which are very extensive.

From these sources, Father Joseph Barre, canon regular and librarian of St. Genevieve at Paris, compiled in 1748, in eleven quarto volumes, his *Histoire Générale d'Allemagne, depuis l'Établissement de l'Empire jusqu'à présent*: a heavy work, and entirely superseded by the History of the Germans by Schmidt, which was translated into the French language by La Veaux, royal professor of history at Berlin.

The history of ITALY, in the middle age, has been illustrated with singular diligence and erudition; and the *Rerum Italicarum Scriptores*, in twenty-eight volumes in folio, form an eternal monument of the learning and industry of Muratori: but, as we have great reason to lament, it is not accompanied by chronological and alphabetical tables, and a copious index, the want of which renders it useless to most readers. It was followed by his *Antiquitates Italicæ mediæ ævi*, in six volumes folio, comprizing seventy-five dissertations on various subjects relating to the antiquities of Italy; a similar monument of his erudition and good sense. Of his treatise *Dell' Antichità Estense ed Italiane*, in two volumes folio, we may say, as of the *Rerum Brunsvicensium Scriptores*, that, though it principally relates to the history of a family, it may be justly ranked among the books which illustrate the general antiquities of the nation; and, indeed, it is seldom that extensive literature, discernment, taste, piety, good sense, and modesty, are united in one person in the degree in which they met in Muratori. From his writings, M. le Ferre de St. Marc published in six octavo volumes his *Abrégé Chronologique*

logique de l'Histoire générale d'Italie, depuis l'An 476, de l'Ere Chrétienne, jusqu'au Traité d'Aix la Chapelle, in 1748: which deserves to be better known in this country. The facts are succinctly and perspicuously related, pointed and judicious observations are frequently inserted, and short dissertations are occasionally introduced. The recent productions of Simonde de Sismondi are too well known to the generality of our readers to require a particular mention of them in this place. Still, the history of Italy remains to be written. It must be difficult, perhaps impossible, to prepare an account of the states of which Italy is now composed, and of the much more numerous states into which it was formerly divided, in such a manner as to give it the appearance of one connected history; since the petty feuds of petty states, however ably written, must, speaking generally, be interesting only to themselves. We should not, however, leave Italy without a particular specification of Giannone's *History of Naples*; which, as a constitutional history, has never been surpassed. We should also mention, with praise, Professor Pütter's *Historical Developement of the present Political Constitution of the Germanic Empire*, of which, in 1790, Mr. Dornford favoured the public with an excellent translation.*

It is observable that SPAIN owes, if not her first, at least one of her first collections of national historians to Robert Bell, an Englishman; who, in 1579, published at Frankfort, in two folio volumes, fifteen historians or important historical documents respecting Spain, under the title of "*Rerum Hispanicarum Scriptores aliquot, ex Bibliothecâ Roberti Bell.*" Other collections have followed. A person would confer a great obligation on the republic of letters, who should favour it with an historical and critical account of the antient Spanish chronicles. In Mariana, the Spaniards may boast of an able historian; of the first, perhaps, who, after the destruction of the Roman empire, wrote in the style or with the spirit of an historian of antiquity. The doctrine of tyrannicide is objected to him: but we doubt whether the tyrannicide of Mariana be more than an assertion of the right of insurrection, in cases in which, to use the language of Hume in his remarks on the execution of Charles I., "the crimes of the tyrant are so enormous that they break through all rules, and extort a confession that he is no longer superior to his people; and can no longer plead, in his own defence, laws which were established for conducting the ordinary course of administration."

* See Review, Vols. ii. N. S. p. 265.; and iv. p. 142.

FRANCE, our rival equally in science and in arms, possesses two collections of national historians, which confer the greatest honour on her literary character. The first is the *Historia Francorum Scriptores coætanei, ab ipsius gentis Origine ad Philippi quarti, seu ad Annum 1286*; printed at Paris, in five volumes folio, 1636—1639: for which we are indebted to Andrew du Chesne and Francis du Chesne his son, and which comprizes nearly 400 historians, chronicles, letters, fragments, and other monuments of the history of France, and was to have extended to twenty-four volumes. It was highly prized, and had become very scarce when it was entirely superseded by Dom. Bouquet's *Historien des Gaules*, a noble work. The first volume, as Mr. Butler has observed in his *Historical Account of the Germanic Empire*, was published in 1738; the sixteenth, and last, in 1814. The value of this collection is enhanced by the learned dissertations, the ample table of contents, and the full index, inserted in each volume; and by the maps and other explanatory or illustrative matter, occasionally introduced into the work. The tables of contents and indexes are framed with so much minuteness and skill as to bring, at once, before the eye of the reader, all that can be found in contemporary authors, respecting any fact on which he can wish for information; while the dissertations are so copious, and so ably executed, that seldom does a point of importance or difficulty occur on which the editors have not collected, for the instruction of the reader, the learning and the opinions of all preceding writers. Dom. Bouquet lived to finish the first eight volumes; and on his decease the undertaking was put into the hands of Dom. Hédiquier; who, with a view to this object, had learned the Arabic that he might be enabled to print, with a translation, the authors who, in that language, have transmitted accounts of the Crusades. Both writers were Benedictine monks; and, invaluable as the production is, it is by no means the only one of the same calibre which the last century owed to that community.

In surveying this collection, it is impossible not to feel a strong wish for a similar COLLECTION OF ENGLISH HISTORIANS. For the first assemblage of them, we are indebted to Jerom Comnidianus, a learned printer; who, in 1587, sent forth, in one volume folio, his *Britannicarum Rerum Scriptores vetustiores et præcipui*. In 1596, Sir Henry Savile published his *Scriptores post Bedum*; and in 1603 appeared Camden's *Anglica, Normannica, Hibernica, et Cambrica, à veteribus Scripta*. These were followed, in 1652, by the *Scriptores Decem* of Twysden and Selden; in 1691, by the *Scriptores Quindecim*

Quindecim of Gale; and in 1723, by Sparke's *Historia Anglicanae Scriptores varii*. With the Benedictine labours, none of these works will bear the least comparison: but a nearer approach to the merit of them is made by Rymer's *Fœdera*. King William's ministers having determined to print, by public authority, the treaties of Great Britain with other powers, appointed Mr. Thomas Rymer to be conductor of the work, and Mr. Robert Saunderson to be his assistant. They completed it in twenty volumes folio; the first appearing in 1704, and the last in 1735. It was re-published at the Hague, in ten large folio volumes, with considerable additions, particularly an Historical and Critical Abridgment of the Work; which, as the volumes of it successively came out, had been printed in the *Bibliothèque Choisie* of Le Clerc.

At this time, Paul Rapin de Thoyras was engaged in the composition of his History of England. He was descended from an antient family, had received a liberal education, had served in the army with distinction, had always lived in good society, was addicted to historical researches, and possessed a spirit of indefatigable industry. The revocation of the edict of Nantes had driven him into this country; whence he afterward retired to Wesel, in the duchy of Clèves, and there employed seventeen years, the whole remainder of his life, in compiling a history of England. Lord Halifax, a great encourager of Rymer's *Fœdera*, regularly sent the volumes of it, as they were published, to Le Clerc, who communicated them to Rapin. Of this fortunate circumstance, Rapin particularly availed himself in the composition of his history: of which he lived to complete eight volumes, bringing it to the death of Charles I. They were published in 1724. Five other volumes, chiefly collected from the materials which he left, were afterward formed. The best edition is that of the Hague, in 1749, in sixteen volumes quarto; and two translations and an abridgment of it have been given in the English language. That the work, generally considered, possesses great merit, cannot be denied: it was always patronized by the Whig party; and Mr. Hume, (chap. 71.) mentions it among "those compositions despicable," as he terms them, "both for style and matter, which the Whigs have extolled, propagated, and read, as if they had equalled the most celebrated remains of antiquity." Unquestionably this censure is immoderately severe.

The success and popularity of Rapin's history gave great offence to the Jacobites. Mr. Carte, a partisan of this school, had just published the third and concluding volume of his *History of the Life of James Duke of Ormonde*, and acquired

by it a considerable degree of reputation. In opposition to Rapin, he circulated proposals for a new history of England; and his design met with singular encouragement, the Court of Common-council of the city of London voting 50*l.*, the company of Goldsmiths 25*l.*, the companies of Grocers and Vintners 25*l.*, and the chapter of Durham 21*l.*, annually, for seven years, towards defraying the expenses of the publication. The University of Oxford and several of its colleges also contributed towards it: but it was observed that the name of no Cantabrigian was found among its supporters. The first volume came out in December, 1747; and in it was found a note, containing a story of one Christopher Lovel, a native of Wells, who was said to have been cured of the evil, at Avignon, in 1716, by the touch of the Pretender. This raised a clamour against the author; the Corporation of London withdrew their subscription; and the undertaking fell into great discredit. Mr. Carte, however, persisted, and successively published, in 1750 and 1752, the second and third volumes; the fourth was issued after his death. The papers which he left, and which were very valuable, became the property of his wife; who married a Mr. Jerningham, and bequeathed them to him during his life, and, after his death, to the Bodleian Library; where they are now deposited. For the perusal of them, the Earl of Hardwicke paid 200*l.*; and the late Mr. Macpherson, who made great use of them in his *Historical Memoirs*, 300*l.* Latterly, Mr. Carte's history has greatly increased in reputation, and now bears its full price. It is certainly a work of great research and diligence: though the writer does not disguise his opinions, he always expresses them with moderation; and, though his style does not rise to elegance, it is always perspicuous, and never offends.

Mr. Hume particularly availed himself of these volumes, in the composition of his celebrated history. By a diligent perusal of the best writers of antiquity, he had acquired a correct taste, and a turn both of thought and language which was truly classical. He had not the elevation of genius, but he possessed great quickness of apprehension, great extent and steadiness of observation, an exact judgment, and feelings at once equable and kind. As reflection, not investigation, was his peculiar power, it was natural that he should be more attentive to the justness and point of his observations than to the accuracy of his facts. To the former, therefore, we must look for the most brilliant, and to the latter for the most imperfect part of his historical character. With regard to his style, if we examine the sentences minutely, we shall often find in

it so many Latin, Scottish, and vulgar combinations of phrase, that, in a strict sense of the word, it is not English: but, with all its defects, it fascinates the reader, and chains his attention to the page. Much of this charm is owing to the excellent disposition of the author's narrative, in which the uninteresting (with some sacrifice, however, of what would be felt important by an observing reader) is always rejected, the principal subject brought forwards, and every reflection and sentiment directed towards it.

Nevertheless, much inaccuracy is justly imputable to Mr. Hume's history; and a greater attention to exactitude is discernible in Dr. Robertson. It may, however, be suspected that he had read little on the subjects of his histories, before he sat down to the composition of them. His periods are more measured than those of Mr. Hume; and, when it is supported by the dignity or importance of the subject, the style of his history is excellent: but, when the matter was not thus elevated, so that the *communis dicere* became his duty, the inflation of his style is displeasing, and sometimes approaches to the ridiculous.

Henry Stephens begins his celebrated comparison of Herodotus and Thucydides by observing the argument to be drawn in favour of the former, from the greater extent of his subject. On this head, if a parallel should be instituted between Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon, the palm must be assigned to the last; for, however wonderful, it is certain that Gibbon was much better informed throughout his vast range of discussion, and all its varieties, than either of his rivals was acquainted with his more limited theme. Wherever Gibbon's historical career leads him, the whole subject, and every thing connected with it, appear present to his mind. Sometimes even, as in his account of the three heavenly witnesses, he compresses in a few lines, and occasionally in a few words, the substance of long and elaborate discussions. Though his periods are often exquisitely beautiful, and his phrases singularly happy, the general affectation of his style must disgust every reader of taste; and its greatest fault is its incessant obscurity. A certain degree of previous information may justly be expected by a writer from his readers; and, when it is confined to this limit, the style of allusion may not be displaced: but this degree of previous information does not exist, and certainly Mr. Gibbon could not require it; for more than one quarter of his work: obscurity must be the consequence; and this is the great defect of his history. Its crimes are its unfair attack on religion, and its too frequent obscenity. Mr. Hume, also,

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may be justly criminated for the spirit of irreligious scepticism which pervades every part of his narrative; and it tells in favour of Dr. Robertson's claim to manly character, that it appears not from his history whether his thoughts on religious matters assimilate with those of Hume and Gibbon, or with those that belonged to the pulpit from which he preached.

Still, with all their defects, the English triumvirate hold the first place in the historic gallery of modern times. Yet both Italy and France have produced respectable historians. The works of D'Avila and Guicciardini are written with good sense, dignity, and perspicuity. While the facts which they related were recent, they had an interest which they do not now possess; and their general prolixity was, therefore, less observed: but the perusal of them is now a labour which few readers, without some motive of duty, have sufficient fortitude to encounter. The same prolixity may be charged on the history of the President de Thou: but its classical latinity and the elevation of its general style, the noble sentiments of civil and religious liberty which it contains, its impartiality, and the interesting accounts occurring in it of the principal literary characters of the times, will always maintain him on the first line of historians. Though we cannot place Father Daniel at the same height, he may be deemed a respectable historian. He brought down his History of France to the end of the reign of Henry IV. That of Lewis XIII., Henry's immediate successor, was written in three quarto volumes, by Father Griffet, a Jesuit, who long held the delicate situation of Confessor to the prisoners in the Bastile. He also published an accurate History of the Reign of Lewis XIV.: it is a mere chronological abridgment, but his account of the reign of Lewis XIII. is one of the most correct and interesting histories which have issued from the Gallic presses. — Before we leave them, we should mention two historical works for which we are indebted to them; and which possess great merit, though they are little known in this country; viz. the *Esprit de la Ligue* of Anquetil, in three volumes, and Father Bougeant's *Histoire du Traité de Westphalie*, in six volumes 8vo.; which, from its first appearance to the present time, has been the breviary of French politicians. Any person who seriously sits down regularly to study the history of modern Europe cannot commence it with a better book.

Since the time of Mr. Hume, the histories of this country have generally been little more than a *crambe recoccta* of his

his work and those of Rapin and Carte, his laborious predecessors. From this censure, however, we must except Mr. Turner's ingenious Anglo-Saxon History, and also Dr. Henry's well known production, which will reach and convey information to our latest posterity: but it is more a regular series of historical narratives than a history, and ranks its author among antiquaries rather than among historians.

We are now presented with a History which is certainly intitled to the praise of being both original and learned. It is evidently the composition of a writer of no ordinary power; one who has read much; who thinks for himself; and who, though he has not neglected the use of modern manufacture, always holds in his hands the rough material, and fashions it in his own manner. Several years ago, Mr. Lingard obtained the favourable notice of the public by his *Antiquities of the Anglo-Saxon Church*: of which the second edition appeared in 1810. From that production, more than from the present, we know him to be a Roman Catholic: but, through the whole of the performance now under our consideration, he breathes the spirit of a freeman.

He thus succinctly relates the history of the second conversion of England to Christianity: it is a fair specimen of his general style, and of his method of presenting ecclesiastical topics to his reader:

‘ The disgrace, which had clouded the first years of Ethelbert, king of Kent, was afterwards dispersed by the glory of a long and prosperous reign. At the death of Ceawlin he had acquired (by what means we are not informed) the dignity of Bretwalda, and his authority was admitted by all the Saxon princes south of the Humber. While in possession of this dignity, he received intelligence that forty strangers had landed on the isle of Thanet. These were Augustine and his associates, partly Gauls, partly Italians, whom Pope Gregory the Great had sent for the benevolent purpose of converting the Pagans. Ethelbert could not be unacquainted with the Christian religion. It was probably the religion of the majority of the British slaves in his dominions: it was certainly professed by his Queen Bertha, the daughter of Charibert, King of Paris. The Saxon prince received the missionaries, under an oak, in an open field, at the suggestion of his priests, who had told him that in such a situation the spells of the foreign magicians would lose their influence. At the appointed time, Augustine was introduced to the King. Before him were borne a silver cross, and a banner representing the Redeemer: behind him his companions walked in procession: and the air resounded with the anthems which they sang in alternate choirs. As soon as the interpreter had explained the object and motives

of their mission, Ethelbert replied, that he had no wish to abandon the gods of his fathers for a new and uncertain worship: but that, as the intention of the strangers was benevolent, and their promises were inviting, they might preach without molestation, and should be supported at his expence. This favourable answer filled them with joy: and they proceeded to Canterbury chanting, as they went, the following prayer: "By thy great mercy, O Lord, turn away, we beseech thee, thy anger from this city and thy holy temple, for we are sinners. Hallelujah."

The care of the Queen had already prepared a residence for the new apostles. They were lodged in the ancient church of St. Martin, which had originally belonged to the Britons, and had lately been repaired for the use of Bishop Liudhard, a prelate who accompanied Bertha from Gaul. Curiosity led the Saxons to visit the strangers: they admired the ceremonies of their worship, compared their lives with those of the Pagan priests, and learned to approve a religion, which could inspire so much piety, austerity, and disinterestedness. With secret pleasure Ethelbert viewed the alteration in the sentiments of his subjects: on the feast of Pentecost in the year 597, he professed himself a Christian, and received the sacrament of baptism; and on the following Christmas ten thousand of his subjects followed the example of their sovereign.

The willing mind of the royal proselyte was now quickened by the letters and presents of the pontiff. He exerted all his influence to second the efforts of the missionaries; not indeed by violence (which he had learned to be repugnant to the mild spirit of the Gospel), but by his exhortations, and by distinguishing the converts with marks of the royal favour. As soon as Augustine had received the episcopal consecration from the Archbishop of Arles, the King retired to the city of Reculver, and gave to the missionaries Canterbury with the surrounding country. By his munificence the church of St. Saviour, originally built by the Britons, was repaired and allotted for the residence of the bishop and his clergy: while a new monastery was raised without the walls, for the use of the monks, and dedicated in honour of the apostles Peter and Paul. At the same time the number of the missionaries was augmented by the care of Gregory; and their success was rapidly extended to the boundaries of the kingdom. As each canton embraced the new doctrine, the heathen temple was converted into a Christian church: and in order to wean the proselytes from their idolatrous practices, they were permitted, instead of the feasts which they had formerly celebrated around the altars of their gods, to assemble upon the more solemn festivals in the neighbourhood of the church, and to partake of a sober repast. To preside over the more distant Christians, Augustine conferred the episcopal dignity on his disciple Justus. The new prelate fixed his residence in Rochester, in which the church of St. Andrew was built and endowed by the piety of Ethelbert.

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The kingdom of Essex was, at this period, governed by Sæberct, the son of its founder, and the nephew of Ethelbert. The influence of the uncle introduced a missionary, the abbot Mellitus, to the notice of Sæberct, who soon consented to receive the sacrament of baptism. The episcopal consecration was conferred on Mellitus: and London, which is represented as a populous and commercial city, was selected for the see of the new bishop. The cathedral was built, and endowed at the joint expense of Ethelbert and Sæberct.

From the conversion of the Saxons, the zeal of Augustine was directed to the reformation of the Britons. During one hundred and fifty years of unsuccessful warfare, the ancient discipline of their church had been nearly abolished, and the lives of their clergy were disgraced by vices the most repugnant to their profession. To which of the British sees the archiepiscopal jurisdiction had been originally attached, is at present unknown; but Gregory had written to Augustine, that he had subjected all the bishops of Britain to his authority. The missionary, with the aid of Ethelbert, prevailed on the British prelates to meet him at a place, which has since been called Augustine's oak, in Worcester-shire. After a long and unavailing debate, the conference was adjourned to another day. In the interval the Britons consulted a neighbouring hermit, who advised them to watch the behaviour of Augustine; if he rose to meet them, they were to consider him as a man of unassuming disposition, and to listen to his demands: but if he kept his seat, they should condemn him of pride, and reject his authority. With this sapient admonition, which left the decision of the controversy to accident, seven bishops, with Dinoh, Abbot of Bangor, repaired to the place of conference. Augustine happened to be seated; and did not rise at their arrival. Both his reasons and his authority were consequently despised. In points of doctrine there had been no difference between them: and to facilitate their compliance in other matters, the archbishop had reduced his demands to three heads: that they should observe the Catholic computation of Easter, should adopt the Roman rite in the administration of baptism, and should join with the missionaries in preaching to the Saxons. Each of these requests, in obedience to the advice of the hermit, was pertinaciously refused. "Know then," exclaimed the missionary with the tone of a prophet, "that if you will not assist me in pointing out to the Saxons the way of life, they, by the just judgment of God, will prove to you the ministers of death." He did not live to see the prediction verified.

The greatest part of the first volume of Mr. Lingard's history is allotted to the Anglo-Saxons; and the most interesting pages of it are assigned to Alfred. — "O! Alfred," exclaims Sir Henry Spelman, "the wonder and astonishment of all ages! If we reflect on his piety and religion, it should seem that he always lived in a cloister; if on his warlike exploits, that he had never been out of camps; if on his learn-

learning and writings, that he had lived his whole life in a college; if on his wholesome laws and administration, that these had been his whole study and employment." The sober pen of Mr. Hume rather adds to this encomium than detracts from it.

"The merit," he says, "of this prince, both in private and public life, may with advantage be set in opposition to that of any monarch or citizen, which the annals of any age, or any nation, can present to us. He seems indeed to be the model of that perfect character, which, under the denomination of a sage or wise man, philosophers have been fond of delineating, rather as a fiction of their imagination, than in hopes of ever seeing it really existing: so happily were all his virtues tempered together; so justly were they blended; and so powerfully did each prevent the other from exceeding its proper boundaries! He knew how to reconcile the most enterprising spirit with the coolest moderation; the most obstinate perseverance with the easiest flexibility; the most severe justice with the gentlest lenity; the greatest vigour in commanding with the most perfect affability of deportment; the highest capacity and inclination for science, with the most shining talents for action. His civil and his military virtues are almost equally the objects of our admiration; excepting only, that the former, being more rare among princes, as well as more useful, seem chiefly to challenge our applause. Nature also, as if desirous that so bright a production of her skill should be set in the fairest light, had bestowed on him every bodily accomplishment, vigour of limbs, dignity of shape and air, with a pleasing, engaging, and open countenance. Fortune alone, by throwing him into that barbarous age, deprived him of historians worthy to transmit his fame to posterity; and we wish to see him delineated in more lively colours, and with more particular strokes, that we may at least perceive some of those small specks and blemishes, from which, as a man, it is impossible he could be entirely exempted."

Something more than specks and blemishes, however, our present historian finds to reprehend in Alfred.

'It has been said,' observes Mr. Lingard, 'that the character of Alfred was without a blemish. Such unqualified praise is the language of rhetorical declamation, rather than of historical truth. In his early years, indeed, his opening virtues endeared him to the nation: and in a more advanced age he was the guardian and the benefactor of his country. But in his conduct at the commencement of his reign there was much to reprehend. The young monarch seems to have considered his high dignity as an emancipation from restraint, and to have found leisure, even amidst his struggles with the Danes, to indulge the impetuosity of his passions. The scandal of Wallingford may be dismissed with the contempt which it perhaps deserves: but we learn from more ancient authorities that his immorality and despotism provoked the

the censure of his virtuous kinsman St. Neot: and Asser, his friend and panegyrist, acknowledges, that he was haughty to his subjects, that he neglected the administration of justice, and treated with contempt the complaints of the indigent and oppressed. It was to this *indiscretion* (to borrow the term under which the partiality of the biographer was willing to veil the misconduct of his patron) that Alfred himself attributed the severe and unexpected calamity which overwhelmed him in the eighth year of his reign.

Mr. Lingard's examination of original historians has obliged him to reject many received tales; — as the popular stories of Alfred visiting the Danish camp in the disguise of a harper; the confinement of Editha, Queen-consort of Edward the Confessor, for a supposed criminal correspondence with the Bishop of Winchester; and her justification of herself by walking barefoot over nine burning plough-shares. He also manifests that the general opinion that shires and hundreds, with their respective courts, were established by Alfred, is erroneous; allots a long, a learned, and an entertaining chapter, to a delineation of the polity of the Anglo Saxons: shews that the feudal system entered into it at a very early period of their government: describes the King as first of the ethels or nobly born; and observes that, whether the new monarch were the immediate or the collateral heir of his predecessor, he was always *elected* by the Witan before his coronation. The Witanagemot is thus described:

‘ Who were the constituent members of this supreme tribunal, has long been a subject of debate: and the dissertations, to which it has given rise, have only contributed to involve it in greater obscurity. It has been pretended that not only the military tenants had a right to be present, but that the ceorls also attended by their representatives, the borsholders of the tythings. The latter part of the assertion has been made without a shadow of evidence, and the former is built on very fallacious grounds. It is indeed probable that in the infancy of the Anglo-Saxon states most of the military retainers may have attended the public councils: yet even then the deliberations were confined to the chieftains; and nothing remained for the vassals but to applaud the determination of their lords. But in later times, when the several principalities were united into one monarchy, the recurrence of these assemblies, thrice in every year within the short space of six months, would have been an insupportable burthen to the lesser proprietors: and there is reason to suspect that the greater attended only when it was required by the importance of events, or by the vicinity of the court. The principal members seem to have been the spiritual and temporal thanes, who held immediately of the crown, and who could command the services of military vassals. It was necessary

cessary that the king should obtain the assent of these to all legislative enactments: because without their acquiescence and support it was impossible to carry them into execution. To many charters we have the signatures of the witan. They seldom exceed thirty in number; they never amount to sixty. They include the names of the king and his sons, of a few bishops and abbots, of nearly an equal number of ealdormen and thanes, and occasionally of the queen, and of one or two abbesses. Others, the fideles or vassals, who had accompanied their lords, are mentioned as looking on and applauding: but there exists no proof whatever, that they enjoyed any share in the deliberations.

‘The legal powers of this assembly have never been accurately ascertained: probably they were never fully defined. To them, on the vacancy of the crown, belonged the choice of the next sovereign: and we find them exercising this claim not only at the decease of each king, but even during the absence of Ethelred in Normandy. They compelled him to enter into a solemn compact with the nation, before they would acknowledge him a second time for King of England. In ordinary cases their deliberations were held in the presence of the sovereign; and as individually they were his vassals, as they had sworn “to love what he loved, and shun what he shunned,” there can be little doubt that they generally acquiesced in his wishes. In the preambles to the Saxon laws the king sometimes assumes a lofty strain. He decrees: the witan give their advice. He denominates himself the sovereign: they are *his* bishops, *his* ealdormen, *his* thanes. But on other occasions this style of royalty disappears, and the legislative enactments are attributed to the witan in conjunction with the king. The same diversity appears in treaties concluded with foreign powers. Some bear only the name of the king: in others the witan are introduced as sanctioning the instrument by their concurrence. In their judicial capacity they compromised or decided civil controversies among themselves: summoned before them state criminals of great power and connexions; and usually pronounced the sentence of forfeiture and outlawry against those whom they found guilty. As legislators they undertook to provide for the defence of the realm, the prevention and punishment of crimes, and the due administration of justice.’

Mr. L. thus relates the important battle of Hastings:

‘The spot which Harold had selected for this important contest was called Senlac, nine miles from Hastings, an eminence opening to the south, and covered on the back by an extensive wood. As his troops arrived, he posted them on the declivity in one compact and immense mass. In the centre waved the royal standard, the figure of a warrior in the act of fighting, worked in thread of gold, and ornamented with precious stones. By its side stood Harold and his two brothers Gurth and Leofwin; and around them the rest of the army, every man on foot. In this arrangement the king seems to have adopted, as far as circumstances would permit, the plan which had lately proved so fatal to the
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Norwegians, and which now, from the same causes, was productive of a similar result. Probably he feared the shock of the numerous cavalry of the Normans. Both men and horses were completely cased in armour, which gave to their charge an irresistible weight, and rendered them almost invulnerable by ordinary weapons. For the purpose of opposing them with more chance of success, Harold had brought with him engines to discharge stones into their ranks, and had recommended to his soldiers to confine themselves in close fight to the use of the battle-axe, a heavy and murderous weapon.

On the opposite hill, William was employed in marshalling his host. In the front he placed the archers and bowmen: the second line was composed of heavy infantry clothed in coats of mail: and behind these the duke arranged, in five divisions, the hope and the pride of the Norman force, the knights and men at arms. That he would strive both by words and actions to infuse into this multitude of warriors from different nations an ardour similar to his own, is not improbable: but the two harangues, which William of Poitou, and Henry of Huntingdon, have put into his mouth, may with equal probability be attributed to the historians themselves. About nine in the morning the army began to move, crossed the interval between the two hills, and slowly ascended the eminence on which the English were posted. The papal banner, as if auspicious of victory, was carried in the front by Toustain the Fair, a dangerous honour, which two of the Norman barons had successively declined.

At the moment when the armies were ready to engage, the Normans raised the national shout of "God is our help," which was as loudly answered by the adverse cry of "Christ's rood, the holy rood." The archers, after the discharge of their arrows, retired to the infantry, whose weak and extended line was unable to make any impression on their more numerous opponents. William ordered the cavalry to charge. The shock was dreadful: but the English in every point opposed a solid and impenetrable mass. Neither buckler nor corslet could withstand the stroke of the battle-axe, wielded by a powerful arm and with unerring aim: and the confidence of the Normans melted away at the view of their own loss, and the bold countenance of their enemies. After a short pause the horse and foot of the left wing betook themselves to flight: their opponents eagerly pursued: and a report was spread that William himself had fallen. The whole army began to waver; when the duke, with his helmet in his hand, rode along the line, exclaiming, "I am still alive, and, with the help of God, I still shall conquer." The presence and confidence of their commander revived the hopes of the Normans: and the speedy destruction of the English, who had pursued the fugitives, was fondly magnified into an assurance of victory. These brave but incautious men had, on their return, been intercepted by a numerous body of cavalry: and on foot and in confusion they quickly disappeared beneath the swords or rather the horses of the enemy. Not a man survived the carnage.

William led his troops again to the attack: but the English column, dense and immoveable, as a rock amidst the waves, resisted every assault. Disappointed and perplexed, the Norman had recourse to a stratagem, suggested by his success in the earlier part of the day. He ordered a division of horse to flee: they were pursued: and the temerity of the pursuers was punished with instant destruction. The same feint was tried with equal success in another part of the field. These losses might diminish the numbers of the English: but the main body obstinately maintained its position: and bade defiance to every effort of the Normans.

During the engagement, William had given the most signal proofs of personal bravery. Three horses had been killed under him: and he had been compelled to grapple on foot with his adversaries. Harold also had animated his followers, both by word and example, and had displayed a courage worthy of the crown, for which he was fighting. His brothers Gurth and Leofwin had perished already: but as long as he survived, no man entertained the apprehension of defeat; or admitted the idea of flight. A little before sunset an arrow, shot at random, entered his eye. He instantly fell; and the knowledge of his fall relaxed the efforts of the English. Twenty Normans undertook to seize the royal banner: and effected their purpose with the loss of half their number. One of them, who maimed with his sword the dead body of the king, was afterwards disgraced by William for his brutality. At dusk the English broke up and dispersed through the wood. The Normans followed their track by the light of the moon, when ignorance of the country led them to a spot intersected with ditches, into which they were precipitated in the ardour of pursuit. The fugitives, recalled by the accident, inflicted a severe vengeance on their adversaries. As William, attracted by the cries of the combatants, was hastening to the place, he met Eustace of Boulogne and fifty knights fleeing with all their speed. He called on them to stop: but the earl, while he was in the act of whispering into the ear of the duke, received a stroke on the back, which forced the blood out of his mouth and nostrils. He was carried in a state of insensibility to his tent: William's intrepidity hurried him on to the scene of danger. His presence encouraged his men: succours arrived: and the English, after an obstinate resistance, were repulsed.

Thus ended this memorable and fatal battle. On the side of the victors almost sixty thousand men had been engaged, and more than one-fourth were left on the field. The number of the vanquished and the amount of their loss are unknown. By the vanity of the Norman historians, the English army has been exaggerated beyond the limits of credibility: by that of the native writers it has been reduced to a handful of resolute warriors: but both agree that with Harold and his brothers perished all the nobility of the south of England; a loss which was never repaired. The king's mother begged as a boon the dead body of her son: she offered as a ransom its weight in gold: but the resentment of William had rendered him callous to pity, and insensible to all interested

terested considerations. He ordered the corpse of the fallen monarch to be buried on the beach; adding, with a sneer, "he guarded the coast while he was alive; let him continue to guard it after death." By stealth, however, or by purchase, the royal remains were removed from this unhallowed site, and deposited in the church of Waltham, which Harold had founded before he ascended the throne.'

The author then proceeds to the reigns of William the Conqueror and William Rufus his son; and with that of Henry I. he closes the first volume. He describes, at length, the consequences of the Norman conquest, the extensive confiscations of the English territory, the general depression of the natives, the elevation of the foreigners, and the introduction of many of the most burdensome institutions of Norman feudalism: but he cautions his readers against believing that the innovations of William subverted the whole of the Anglo-Saxon polity. The ealdormen of former times, the greater and smaller thanes, the ceorls and theowas, disappeared: but, according to Mr. Lingard, the same orders of men existed in the Norman polity, under the new names of Counts, Earls, Barons, Knights, Esquires, Free-tenants, Villeins, and Niefs. He observes that the national council was continued, and exercised the same judicial and legislative powers; that justice was administered by the same tribunals; and that the statutes of the Anglo-Saxon kings and the West Saxon, Mercian, and Northumberland customary laws, were repeatedly confirmed. At the close of his account of the reign of Henry I., we find a succinct view of the state of the arts in England, at that period of our history: it is ably executed, but we wish that it had been framed on a more extensive plan.

[To be continued.]

ART. X. *Mazeppa*, a Poem. By Lord Byron. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1819.

ART. XI. *Don Juan*. 4to. pp. 227. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Printed by Davison. 1819.

WE shall, perhaps, be borne out by experience in the observation that, as real genius is of much rarer occurrence than superior talent, so, where it exists, it is far from being versatile in its nature, but is generally limited by the peculiar scope and bias with which it was at first developed. This principle is more particularly applicable to poetry, and

hence the generic distinctions of pastoral, descriptive, lyric, or dramatic poets.

When, however, a genius arises which appears to unite in itself many of these opposite characteristics of the imitative powers, it must surely be drawn from the fountains of nature herself, must be highly original, and must become deservedly popular: yet, which may appear paradoxical, but is nevertheless true, it is frequently born possessed of faults almost as numerous as its beauties. The "*aliquando dormitat Homerus*" was therefore well applied even to the most transcendent genius on earth. Moreover, this is by no means the only or the worst sin which is liable to be committed; the opposite extreme of exaggeration and profuseness being more to be feared from *exquisite* spirits than even the "nodding with the muse." These *Scylla* and *Charybdis* of the poets require all the wisdom and skill of Homer's Ulysses to be avoided; but is it not more glorious to fail here, than to seek for safety in the trite and dull track of mediocrity? As to the cause of the beauties of a finer genius being often accompanied by great defects, this is a question of a different nature:—but we think that Shakspeare, Dryden, and we may add Lord Byron, will warrant us in stating the fact.

As a proof of this limitation of genius, and of such illustrious exceptions, if we examine from the age of Chaucer to our own, we shall find the poetical world apportioned to its respective masters, with as much arbitrary distinction as we perceive in the various professions and institutions of society; and it would appear as if nature dispensed with this impartial rule in favour only of those "heaven-awakened few," whose unbounded strength and restlessness of spirit overpower the common limits of mind; and whose language, like the thunder of the heavens, rebounding from the cloud to the mountain, and from the mountain to the valley, fills the surrounding echoes with its awful music. There are master-spirits in the strange history of mind, which, unsatisfied with any partial views, seem to compass in the keenness of their vision those prospects which are distributed among *numbers* of an inferior class; and they are the musicians of nature, who, confined to *no* key, run through the whole scale of harmony from the lowest to the highest note; exhibiting the sublime or the trifling, the witty or the impassioned, the elegant or the impetuous, as the Proteus-god prevails.

Although our opinion of the varied powers of the noble author, who has now given us an additional proof of them in
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Don Juan, though perhaps not in *Mazeppa*, has altered with his productions since his first appearance, which we hailed with gladness, to the epoch during which he has risen to his present eminence; yet we always regarded him as superior in versatility of thought and numbers to any single poet of our times. This characteristic becomes still more surprising, if we consider the comparatively small period during which his numerous pieces have been produced. His early poems partake of that lavish and extravagant vein of thought which always ripens into strength, and to which we are indebted for a *Romeo and Juliet*, a *Richard the Second* and *Third*: the same that characterized the early writings of Dryden. Lord Byron's satirical productions were certainly astonishing at his age, though they did not possess the close strength and vigour of Pope; and in "*Childe Harold*" he gave new language and meaning to the Spenserian stanza, while he exhibited as many faults as his hero. The progress of the traveller's steps was not greater or more variable than that of his mind: to impetuosity of feeling was added a strength of sentiment; and philosophical reflection completed what nature had begun. Yet, as we more particularly pointed out in a late Review, how many blemishes cast too deep a shade over the work! The display of terrific character in his various heroes is given in a style of drawing equally false and grand; and the poet here manifests himself the true brother of a *Salvator Rosa*. In his "*Corsair*," he approaches Pope, and even Dryden, but can never sustain the parallel; while his subsequent pieces yield a final test of his genius in the wit and ease which are found in the first only of our poets. With all these advantages, he is encumbered with too many failings. His strength often swells into turgidity; his descriptions and characters are rather exaggerated; he aims at expressing more than the subject will bear; and his feelings betray him into tautology and egotism.

While his sentiments are peculiar, and often false, his philosophical observations become obscure; and his restlessness of feeling often breaks through the connection of his thoughts, to surprize us with comparisons neither agreeable nor true. He is the real poet of passion: but he describes passion of an untamed nature, which recoils with increasing force from every weight that is laid on it. He is likewise too fond of anatomizing, and unfolding to our view, the inclinations rather than the duties or the finer action of our nature. This perversion of mind is busy with incongruous images, with which it may illustrate its subject; we must not therefore expect those pleasing pictures of melancholy truth which Shakspeare gives.

gives, and which are the offspring of pity, not of misanthropy.

The story of *Mazeppa* possesses the novelty of a lively vein introduced into the octo-syllabic measure, which was before sacred to the author's *dreadful* heroes: but it is certainly not one of his happiest efforts, although it contains some good description of Siberian scenery. It is supposed to be related by the hero of it to Charles XII. of Sweden, during the retreat from the disastrous battle of Pultowa. *Mazeppa* was a Polonese gentleman, brought up at the court of John Casimir, and engaged in his youth in an intrigue with the wife of another Pole; who detected them, and tied the gallant on a wild horse, a native of the Ukraine, which carried his burden into that country, nearly dead with fatigue and hunger. Lord B. has prefixed to his verses a quotation from Voltaire's *History of Charles XII.*, which affords this explanation of the fact that he has chosen for his theme: but the extract should have been continued, to convey Voltaire's subsequent account of the cause of *Mazeppa* having quitted the service of the Czar, and gone over to his rival, the Swedish hero.

As the basis of this narrative, viz. a love-intrigue, is in conformity with Lord Byron's favourite contemplations, so the horrors of the result are congenial to the general nature of his pictures. Something new, however, is certainly presented in this incident, together with the descriptions and feelings to which it gives rise; and in these particulars the poem has its chief and perhaps its only merit. We shall not dwell long on it, but offer to our readers two or three passages:

During the prolonged flight of *Mazeppa's* steed, and just as he was on the point of dropping from exhaustion, a troop of wild horses was heard approaching.

“ At length, while reeling on our way,
Methought I heard a courser neigh,
From out yon tuft of blackening firs.
Is it the wind those branches stirs?
No, no! from out the forest prance
A trampling troop; I see them come!
In one vast squadron they advance!
I strove to cry — my lips were dumb.
The steeds rush on in plunging pride;
But where are they the reins to guide?
A thousand horse — and none to ride!
With flowing tail, and flying mane,
Wide nostrils — never stretch'd by pain,
Mouths bloodless to the bit or rein,

And feet that iron never shod,
 And flanks unscarr'd by spur or rod.
 A thousand horse, the wild, the free,
 Like waves that follow o'er the sea,
 Came thickly thundering on,
 As if our faint approach to meet;
 The sight re-nerved my courser's feet,
 A moment staggering, feebly fleet,
 A moment, with a faint low neigh,
 He answer'd, and then fell;
 With gasps and glazing eyes he lay,
 And reeking limbs immoveable,
 His first and last career is done!
 On came the troop — they saw him stoop,
 They saw me strangely bound along
 His back with many a bloody thong:
 They stop — they start — they snuff the air,
 Gallop a moment here and there,
 Approach, retire, wheel round and round,
 Then plunging back with sudden bound,
 Headed by one black mighty steed,
 Who seem'd the patriarch of his breed,
 Without a single speck or hair
 Of white upon his shaggy hide;
 They snort — they foam — neigh — swerve aside,
 And backward to the forest fly,
 By instinct, from a human eye.—”

Still securely attached to the poor departed animal, *Mazeppa*
 feels all the aggravated horrors of death come over him:

“ The sun was sinking — still I lay
 Chain'd to the chill and stiffening steed,
 I thought to mingle there our clay;
 And my dim eyes of death had need,
 No hope arose of being freed:
 I cast my last looks up the sky,
 And there between me and the sun
 I saw the expecting raven fly,
 Who scarce would wait till both should die,
 Ere his repast begun;
 He flew, and perch'd, then flew once more,
 And each time nearer than before;
 I saw his wing through twilight flit,
 And once so near me he alit
 I could have smote, but lack'd the strength;
 But the slight motion of my hand,
 And feeble scratching of the sand,
 The exerted throat's faint struggling noise,
 Which scarcely could be call'd a voice,
 Together scared him off at length. —

I know

I know no more — my latest dream
 Is something of a lovely star
 Which fix'd my dull eyes from afar,
 And went and came with wandering beam,
 And of the cold, dull, swimming, dense
 Sensation of recurring sense,
 And then subsiding back to death,
 And then again a little breath,
 A little thrill, a short suspense,
 An icy sickness curdling o'er
 My heart, and sparks that cross'd my brain —
 A gasp, a throb, a start of pain,
 A sigh, and nothing more."

He waked again to life, however, and found himself in a cottage, the inhabitants of which took so much care of him that he recovered.

This poem is followed by an ode on the present falling fortune of the once proud Venice, and a fragment of a prose tale, which seems to have been the commencement of a Vampyre story, connected with the circumstances which we have mentioned in our account of Dr. Polidori's tale on that subject, in our Number for May last. Neither of these productions needs longer to detain us from the more singular and very superior poem of *Don Juan*; — a poem, however, which has also such demerits, that neither his Lordship nor his usual publisher has chosen to acknowledge it: but which, if originality and variety be the surest test of genius, has certainly the highest title to it; and which, we think, would have puzzled Aristotle with all his strength of *Poetics* to explain, have animated Longinus with some of its passages, have delighted Aristophanes, and have choked Anacreon with joy instead of with a grape. We might almost imagine that the ambition had seized the author to please and to displease the world at the same time: but we can scarcely think that he deserves the fate of the old man and his son and the ass, in the fable, or that he will please nobody, how strongly soever we may condemn the more than poetic license of his muse. He has here exhibited that wonderful versatility of style and thought which appear almost incompatible within the scope of a single subject; and the familiar and the sentimental, the witty and the sublime, the sarcastic and the pathetic, the gloomy and the droll, are all touched with so happy an art, and mingled together with such a power of union, yet such a discrimination of style, that a perusal of the poem appears more like a pleasing and ludicrous dream, than the sober feeling of reality. It is certainly one of the strangest though not the best of dreams; and it is much to be wished that the author,

before he lay down to sleep, had invoked, like Shakspeare's Lysander, some good angel to protect him against the *wicked* spirit of slumbers. We hope, however, that his readers have learnt to admire his genius without being in danger from its influence; and we must not be surprized if a poet *will not* always write to instruct as well as to please us. Still we must explicitly condemn and reprobate various passages and expressions in the poem, which we shall not insult the understanding, the taste, or the feeling of our readers by pointing out; endeavouring rather, like artful chemists, to extract an essence from the mass, which, resembling the honey from poisonous flowers, may yet be sweet and pure.

Love is here again the prime agent. Our Opera-house and our other theatres have made Don Juan, the libertine, perfectly familiar to the British public; and Lord Byron has chosen to select this votary of licentiousness for his hero, whose birth, education, and adventures, he undertakes to pourtray. Two cantos, now presented to us, give his early history; his first *amour* with a married lady; and his subsequent expatriation, shipwreck, and escape, to be *discovered* and *recovered* by a beautiful young female, with whom in course "the game of love again is played." What but similar pictures of meretricious events, in themselves scarcely diversified, but relieved no doubt by new episodes, and supported by every varied charm of description, can be supposed to be destined to occupy the 'twelve, or twenty-four' cantos which are threatened to complete the poem? We trust, however, and we believe, that the noble author will pay sufficient deference to the public morals, and to that public voice which we doubt not will in this instance call on him, to abstain from pursuing a design which may indeed add to his poetic reputation, but can never procure for him any moral fame.

Don Juan's history being by no means *regular* and *unbroken*, we shall intrench on his life and adventures as arbitrarily as we please, and share his confidence only in those moments in which the true spirit of love and nature is manifested in him, strong and great. For a specimen of real grief and pathos, we give the lamentation of Donna Julia, the lady from whom he is torn away, which is worthy of Ariadne or of Dido:

"They tell me 'tis decided; you depart:
'Tis wise — 'tis well, but not the less a pain;
I have no further claim on your young heart,
Mine is the victim, and would be again;

To

To love too much has been the only art
 I used ; — I write in haste, and if a stain
 Be on this sheet, 'tis not what it appears,
 My eyeballs burn and throb, but have no tears.

“ I loved, I love you, for this love have lost
 State, station, heaven, mankind's, my own esteem,
 And yet can not regret what it hath cost,
 So dear is still the memory of that dream ;
 Yet, if I name my guilt, 'tis not to boast,
 None can deem harshlier of me than I deem :
 I trace this scrawl because I cannot rest —
 I've nothing to reproach, or to request.

“ Man's love is of man's life a thing apart,
 'Tis woman's whole existence ; man may range
 The court, camp, church, the vessel, and the mart,
 Sword, gown, gain, glory, offer in exchange
 Pride, fame, ambition, to fill up his heart,
 And few there are whom these can not estrange ;
 Men have all these resources, we but one,
 To love again, and be again undone.

“ You will proceed in pleasure, and in pride,
 Beloved and loving many ; all is o'er
 For me on earth, except some years to hide
 My shame and sorrow deep in my heart's core ;
 These I could bear, but cannot cast aside
 The passion which still rages as before,
 And so farewell — forgive me, love me — No,
 That word is idle now — but let it go.

“ My breast has been all weakness, is so yet ;
 But still I think I can collect my mind ;
 My blood still rushes where my spirit's set,
 As roll the waves before the settled wind ;
 My heart is feminine, nor can forget —
 To all, except one image, madly blind ;
 So shakes the needle, and so stands the pole,
 As vibrates my fond heart to my fix'd soul.

“ I have no more to say, but linger still,
 And dare not set my seal upon this sheet,
 And yet I may as well the task fulfil,
 My misery can scarce be more complete :
 I had not lived till now, could sorrow kill ;
 Death shuns the wretch who fain the blow would meet,
 And I must even survive this last adieu,
 And bear with life, to love and pray for you !”

The poet then proceeds to comment on this letter in an opposite tone of levity and cool indifference, and at the same time facetiously lets us into the design of his new Epic : ending with some brief ‘ poetic commandments,’ in a style of parody

dy which must disgust every good feeling of a pious
d. Ideas of another nature then come over the writer ;
he appears as if he despised himself because he could be
ght to ' smile at any thing.'

- ' No more — no more — Oh ! never more on me
The freshness of the heart can fall like dew,
Which out of all the lovely things we see
Extracts emotions beautiful and new,
Hived in our bosoms like the bag o'the bee :
Think'st thou the honey with those objects grew ?
Alas ! 'twas not in them, but in thy power
To double even the sweetness of a flower.
- ' No more — no more — Oh ! never more, my heart,
Canst thou be my sole world, my universe !
Once all in all, but now a thing apart,
Thou canst not be my blessing or my curse :
The illusion's gone for ever, and thou art
Insensible, I trust, but none the worse,
And in thy stead I've got a deal of judgment,
Though heaven knows how it ever found a lodgment.
- ' My days of love are over, me no more
The charms of maid, wife, and still less of widow,
Can make the fool of which they made before,
In short, I must not lead the life I did do ;
The credulous hope of mutual minds is o'er,
The copious use of claret is forbid too,
So for a good old-gentlemanly vice,
I think I must take up with avarice.
- ' Ambition was my idol, which was broken
Before the shrines of Sorrow and of Pleasure ;
And the two last have left me many a token
O'er which reflection may be made at leisure :
Now, like Friar Bacon's brazen head, I've spoken,
" Time is, Time was, Time's past," a chymic treasure
Is glittering youth, which I have spent betimes —
My heart in passion, and my head on rhymes.
- ' What is the end of fame ? 'tis but to fill
A certain portion of uncertain paper :
Some liken it to climbing up a hill,
Whose summit, like all hills, is lost in vapour ;
For this men write, speak, preach, and heroes kill,
And bards burn what they call their " midnight taper,"
To have, when the original is dust,
A name, a wretched picture, and worse bust.
- ' What are the hopes of man ? old Egypt's King
Cheops erected the first pyramid
And largest, thinking it was just the thing
To keep his memory whole, and mummy hid ;
But somebody or other rummaging,
Burglariously broke his coffin's lid :

Let not a monument give you or me hopes,
Since not a pinch of dust remains of Cheops.

' But I, being fond of true philosophy,
Say very often to myself, " Alas!
All things that have been born were born to die,
And flesh (which Death mows down to hay) is grass;
You've pass'd your youth not so unpleasantly,
And if you had it o'er again — 'twould pass —
So thank your stars that matters are no worse,
And read your Bible, Sir, and mind your purse."

' But for the present, gentle reader! and
Still gentler purchaser! the bard — that's I —
Must, with permission, shake you by the hand,
And so your humble servant, and good bye!
We meet again, if we should understand
Each other; and if not, I shall not try
Your patience further than by this short sample,
'Twere well if others follow'd my example.

' " Go, little book, from this my solitude!
I cast thee on the waters, go thy ways!
And if, as I believe, thy vein be good,
'The world will find thee after many days."
When Southey's read, and Wordsworth understood,
I can't help putting in my claim to praise —
The four first rhymes are Southey's, every line:
For God's sake, reader! take them not for mine.'

Although these stanzas are not without palpable faults, they are bold, and sometimes extremely poetic. When the author gives way to his satirical humour in the delineation of character, as in that of Donna Inez, he is ridiculously happy: but we have not room to quote, as we intended, stanzas 22. to 32. In canto the second, when Don Juan is leaving his friends and country for a long voyage, we have a singular mixture of the sentimental and the ludicrous:

' " Farewell, my Spain! a long farewell!" he cried,
" Perhaps I may revisit thee no more,
But die, as many an exiled heart hath died,
Of its own thirst to see again thy shore:
Farewell, where Guadalquivir's waters glide!
Farewell, my mother! and, since all is o'er,
Farewell, too dearest Julia! — (here he drew
Her letter out again, and read it through.)
' And oh! if e'er I should forget, I swear —
But that's impossible, and cannot be —
Sooner shall this blue ocean melt to air,
Sooner shall earth resolve itself to sea,
'Than I resign thine image, Oh! my fair!
Or think of any thing excepting thee;

A mind

- A mind diseased no remedy can physic —
(Here the ship gave a lurch, and he grew sea-sick.)
- ‘ “ Sooner shall heaven kiss earth — (here he fell sicker)
Oh, Julia! what is every other woe? —
(For God's sake let me have a glass of liquor —
Pedro! Battista! help me down below.)
Julia, my love! — (you rascal, Pedro, quicker) —
Oh Julia! — (this curst vessel pitches so) —
Beloved Julia, hear me still beseeching!”
(Here he grew inarticulate with retching.)
- ‘ He felt that chilling heaviness of heart,
Or rather stomach, which, alas! attends,
Beyond the best apothecary's art,
The loss of love, the treachery of friends,
Or death of those we dote on, when a part
Of us dies with them as each fond hope ends:
No doubt he would have been much more pathetic,
But the sea acted as a strong emetic.
- ‘ Love's a capricious power; I've known it hold
Out through a fever caused by its own heat,
But be much puzzled by a cough and cold,
And find a quinsy very hard to treat;
Against all noble maladies he's bold,
But vulgar illnesses don't like to meet,
Nor that a sneeze should interrupt his sigh,
Nor inflammations redden his blind eye.’

Still, whenever the poet chooses to confine himself to real energy and even sublimity of poetry, it is always at his command. His account of the shipwreck in the wide ocean, followed by the miseries of some survivors in a boat, who are reduced to the necessity of feeding on their own companions, is terrible even to the ear.

- ‘ Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell,
Then shriek'd the timid, and stood still the brave,
Then some leap'd overboard with dreadful yell,
As eager to anticipate their grave;
And the sea yawn'd around her like a hell,
And down she suck'd with her the whirling wave,
Like one who grapples with his enemy,
And strives to strangle him before he die.
- ‘ And first one universal shriek there rush'd,
Louder than the loud ocean, like a crash
Of echoing thunder; and then all was hush'd,
Save the wild wind and the remorseless dash
Of billows; but at intervals there gush'd,
Accompanied with a convulsive splash,
A solitary shriek, the bubbling cry
Of some strong swimmer in his agony.’

Lord

Lord Byron appears, however, to have worked up no part of his poem with so much beauty and life of description, as that which narrates the loves of Juan and Haidee. Whether it be an episode, or an integral portion of his epic, it is well worth all the rest. We quote as much as we dare, or can. On the beach, by moon-light, Juan has fallen asleep, with Haidee in his arms :

- ' An infant when it gazes on a light,
A child the moment when it drains the breast,
A devotee when soars the Host in sight,
An Arab with a stranger for a guest,
A sailor when the prize has struck in fight,
A miser filling his most boarded chest,
Feel rapture ; but not such true joy are reaping
As they who watch o'er what they love while sleeping.
- ' For there it lies so tranquil, so beloved,
All that it hath of life with us is living ;
So gentle, stirless, helpless, and unmoved,
And all unconscious of the joy 'tis giving ;
All it hath felt, inflicted, pass'd, and proved,
Hush'd into depths beyond the watcher's diving ;
There lies the thing we love with all its errors
And all its charms, like death without its terrors.
- ' The lady watch'd her lover — and that hour
Of Love's, and Night's, and Ocean's solitude,
O'erflow'd her soul with their united power ;
Amidst the barren sand and rocks so rude
She and her wave-worn love had made their bower,
Where nought upon their passion could intrude,
And all the stars that crowded the blue space
Saw nothing happier than her glowing face.
- ' Alas ! the love of women ! it is known
To be a lovely and a fearful thing ;
For all of theirs upon that die is thrown,
And if 'tis lost, life hath no more to bring
To them but mockeries of the past alone,
And their revenge is as the tiger's spring,
Deadly, and quick ; and crushing ; yet, as real
Torture is theirs, what they inflict they feel.
- ' They are right ; for man, to man so oft unjust,
Is always so to women ; one sole bond
Awaits them, treachery is all their trust ;
Taught to conceal, their bursting hearts despond
Over their idol, till some wealthier lust
Buys them in marriage — and what rests beyond ?
A thankless husband, next a faithless lover,
Then dressing, nursing, praying, and all's over.

' Some

Some take a lover, some take drams or prayers,
 Some mind their household, others dissipation,
 Some run away, and but exchange their cares,
 Losing the advantage of a virtuous station;
 Few changes e'er can better their affairs,
 Theirs being an unnatural situation,
 From the dull palace to the dirty hovel:
 Some play the devil, and then write a novel.

Haidee was Nature's bride, and knew not this;
 Haidee was Passion's child, born where the sun
 Showers triple light, and scorches even the kiss
 Of his gazelle-eyed daughters; she was one
 Made but to love, to feel that she was his
 Who was her chosen: what was said or done
 Elsewhere was nothing — She had nought to fear,
 Hope, care, nor love beyond, her heart beat *here*.

And oh! that quickening of the heart, that beat!
 How much it costs us! yet each rising throb
 Is in its cause as its effect so sweet,
 That Wisdom, ever on the watch to rob
 Joy of its alchymy, and to repeat
 Fine truths; even Conscience, too, has a tough job
 To make us understand each good old maxim,
 So good — I wonder Castlereagh don't tax 'em.

Lord Byron talks of his hair being grey at thirty: we
 have hair still whiter and years yet graver: but

“ Old as we are, for ladies' love unfit,
 The power of beauty we remember yet,
 Which once inspired our love, and still inspires our wit.”

Voluptuous, then, as is his delineation of the delight which
 the sex confer on us in this world, and powerful as are the
 varied attractions of his pen, it requires some exertion to
 withdraw ourselves from his spell, and to bestow merited
 censure on all the abuses which he commits both as a painter
 and as a writer. We must, however, close his volume; and
again we would remind him that these are not the deeds of
 which the recollection will enable him to say, on his death-
 bed, “ *Nec me virisæ pænitet, quoniam ita vixi ut me non
 frustra natum existimem.*”

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JULY, 1819.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Durovernum*; with other Poems. By Arthur Brooke.
 12mo. 7s. Boards. Longman 1818.

REV. JULY, 1819.

Y

Much

Much of poetical spirit, and some command of musical expression, are displayed in this little volume; which celebrates the native place of the author, the city of Canterbury, in no vulgar strains. For example:

‘ Roll on, fair river! with a lovely pride,
Unmoved by all save nature’s high decree;
How unremittingly thy waters glide
With silent lapse unto the boundless sea,
Like earthly years into eternity!
Let mightier streams in loftier lays be sung;
Enough, dear native Stour! enough for thee,
If on thy banks one home-bread harp hath rung,
And to thy name the Muse one votive garland hung.

‘ Thrones — monarchs — empires — in the night of age,
Forgotten sink, a lost and nameless throng;
But shrined in glory on the immortal page
Of the great father of our English song,
Thou, Durovernum! shalt be borne along
The tide of time in never-fading fame.
Thou wert my nursing-mother; if among
Thy worthier sons my else-unhonored name
Shall haply be preserved, ’tis all these strains may claim.

We select a passage also from the ‘Curse of Chatterton;’ not, we are sorry to say, in approbation. We do not, indeed, comprehend how a delicate and dignified taste can permit an author to put into the mouth of a being, consecrated by his genius and his afflictions, like Chatterton, the most violent sentiments of hatred and horror for his fellow-creatures. A due respect for the poet, if not for the human sufferer, should have prevented this.

‘ THE CURSE OF CHATTERTON.

‘ One struggle more, and then I shall be calm;
This friendly phial holds the welcome draught
Which to my feverish breast shall seem a balm
Sweeter than e’er the lips of luxury quaffed.
Yet, let me pause; and ere a self-sought grave
Over this worn and wearied frame shall close,
Let me breathe out one dying curse on those
Who best deserve it. Nay, I do not rave,
But in this awful hour, I can compose
My thoughts to meet this fate, rather than crave
From their vile bounty, what perhaps might save
This being yet awhile — for what? — to be their slave!

‘ Shall I live thus? No! while earth’s cold embrace
Offers to woes like mine a resting place,
There will I flee; beneath that quiet sod
To sleep for ever, or to meet a God
Who will not judge like his proud creature, man,
Who, as he passes by the humble tomb
His pity scarce accorded, will presume

The

The faults of him who lies beneath to scan,
Invoking on this deed the fiery doom
Which fits his fierce belief's infernal plan.

' Stand off, thou hypocrite! thy threats are vain;
Beyond the grave, what should the guiltless fear?
Is it a crime to quit this world of pain,
And seek from heaven what was denied us here?'

Neither good feeling nor good sense, nor compassion nor piety, can be discovered in this passage. Has the impatience or the despondency of the ill-regulated mind any need of the *sanction of example* to drive it on to suicide? — At all events, such *speaking for others*, in the hour of personal and real distress, is in bad taste; and we trust that Mr. Brooke will receive our suggestions as they are intended, and avoid any such occasion for scandal in future.

Art. 13. *Poems*, by Arthur Brooke, Esq. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Many of these poems, we believe, are of an earlier date than those of the preceding volume. Considered, therefore, as a youthful promise, they are very well; though somewhat too warm, in parts, perhaps; — with too much of Mr. "LITTLE" about them. In other passages, Mr. Brooke seems to have taken the melancholy manner of Lord Byron for his prototype; and, whether from fictitious or real grief, he strikes a note of sufficient sadness to charm even in our dismal times. Let us listen for a moment to it, and then turn to more cheerful occupations:

' FINALE.

' My soul is dark and barren: — fancy's flowers
Have perish'd long; then let my dull strain close.
Hang there, my harp! nor through succeeding hours
Wake thy worn strings again to count my woes.
That only source from which thy song arose
I have exhausted — far as song may tell;
And if with thine my spirit could repose
From thoughts which wring it from its inmost cell,
How should I joy to breathe one long and last farewell!'

Heigho! heigho!

" *Turpe et miserabile!* "

Art. 14. *Night*, a descriptive Poem, in Four Books. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

" *Ibant obscuri, solâ sub NOCTE, per umbram.*" VIRGIL.

So fare the travellers through this volume of NIGHT; a volume **that** is involved in pitchy darkness, to our apprehension.

' Night, I will sing of thee! while o'er my soul
Care broods like Darkness, which the hopeless pass'd

Haunts, drinking her own tears, and — still too late, —
 Offering her phantom-aid of mockery.
 I love thy face, when it is calm and sad,
 As Valor's dying hour, or the stern mind
 That suffers, and is mute. I love thee, Night,
 When each near object, like a corse laid out,
 Rests, well defin'd and still! while distant ones
 Sleep on their shadows vast, in dimness cloth'd,
 Which, as with magic transformation, gives
 To bounded things seeming infinity,
 And shapes grotesque or awful, at the will
 Of wizard fancy, &c. &c.

He who has not "supp'd full of horrors" may here gratify his most murky taste; and we recommend the present dish of the terrible to be served up in the second course of that "*Black Banquet* *," which the scribblers of the continental or the domestic school so largely furnished for us a few years ago. We can hardly bring ourselves to wish such an author "*Good night*."

Art. 15. *De Courci*, a Tale in Two Cantos, with other Poems, &c.
 By James Thomson. 8vo. pp. 246. 10s. 6d. Boards. Aspern.

De Courci is a pleasing and interesting story, and the poet has done it sufficient justice by the soft and graceful garb in which he has clothed it. Mr. J. Thomson displays an easy and flowing expression, and a happy talent of awakening and keeping alive the interest of the reader in the passing scene. The 'Commemorative Addresses,' which form the second part of the work, are better adapted to the occasions for which they were written, than to make much impression on the mind of the general reader. Of the 'Miscellaneous Poems,' many are elegant, and all are light and airy: but they are somewhat too numerous, and, on certain occasions, when great personages are addressed, they breathe not a little of the spirit of adulation. Mr. T. does not always adhere to the legitimate language of Great Britain, in which such words as 'advocacy' and 'advantaged' have no place.

Art. 16. *The Immortality of the Soul*; and other Poems. By Thomas Thomson. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Printed at Glasgow, and sold in London by Williams and Co.

When will the ear of melancholy be satiated with those congenial strains that are for ever breathing from the myriad-harps of our contemporaries? It seems as if the whole island were enamoured of sadness, and nothing but a dirge could delight the lovers of poetry.

— "Dolendum
 Est ipsi tibi"

seems to be the universal receipt for popularity in our lighter literature;

* We need not remind our classical readers of the allusion, in this phrase, to the *feralis cæna*, the dark feast of that sanguinary monarch "an Emperor of Rome!"

ture;

ture; and such a company of *merry mourners* we do not recollect to have known in any former æra.

Thus saith the present author :

‘ I turn from thee for ever : forth I flee
To solitude ; all earth is such to me.
If painful memory e’er a pang impart,
When the sad lone one rises to thy heart ;
Think that some buried friend thou call’st to mind ;
Or dream, that scarcely left a trace behind.
To friendship — happiness — to all I see
On earth, I’m dead : — I live alone to thee.
I am a charnel, and each thought a stone,
A sad memorial of some pleasure gone ;
And thou the cypress flinging o’er the tomb
A sadder murmur, and a deeper gloom.’

This, however, (to use an Hibernicism) is one of the ‘ *other Poems*. Let us turn to ‘ *The Immortality of the Soul*.’ There we find an address to man, as follows :

‘ Thou only sorrow’st, weeping at thy birth,
And weep’st, descending to thy mother earth.’

Moral.

“ Let us all be unhappy together !”

Art. 17. *The Path of Duty*, a Moral Tale, in Four Books; Pleasing Recollections, derived from a Tour in Monmouthshire: Essays, on Subjects Moral and Sacred; with some lighter Pieces. By Mason Chamberlin; Author of “*Equanimity*, a Poem;” and “*Ocean*, a Poem.” 8vo. pp. 352. 12s. Boards Nichols and Co. 1818.

It is painful to be obliged to discourage the well-intended endeavours of any species of writer, in the cause of religion and morality: but, really, a good-sized octavo of *blank* piety, unenlivened by original thinking, or recondite information, or melody, or elegant expression, cannot be tolerated even in this privileged age of authorship. The very chance that one individual may be frightened from ‘the path of duty,’ by this cumbrous attempt to bring him *into* it, is enough to prevent us from extending to the present volume the indulgence, which we are disposed to give to all books of unexceptionable principles. Let our readers judge, and the author (on second thoughts) acknowledge, whether we are too severe.

‘ With pleasure, said Eusebius, I remark,
The just conviction wrought upon your mind
By this survey as hitherto pursued.’

Such passages occur in almost every page; and in what they differ from prose, except in their *admeasurement*, we are unable to discover.

If we turn to the smaller pieces, we find nothing better, and few things worse, than the following :

‘ MORNING HYMN.

‘ Oh ! thou who thro’ the darksome night,
Hast kindly watch’d each sleeping hour,
Assist me with the dawning light,
To bless thy name, and own thy power.

‘ To thee, I owe continued health,
That choicest of thy gifts below,
Of higher worth than fame or wealth,
Or all thou canst on earth bestow.

‘ Teach me this mercy still to prize,
While thou such favour shalt afford :
Blessings are curses in disguise,
If not confess’d as from the Lord.

‘ And teach me more — to seek the joy,
Reserv’d thro’ thy unbounded love,
For those, who to thy praise employ
Their days, and seek thy courts above.’

Art. 18. *The Autumnal Excursion*, or Sketches in Teviotdale, with other Poems. By Thomas Pringle. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable ; London, Longman and Co. 1819.

This is a pretty little volume ; tame in some parts, indeed, and tautologous in others, but still tolerable.

The subjoined ‘Sonnet’ is better, in our judgment, than the generality of that ambiguous sort of verse and prose composition :

‘ *To a revered female Relative.*

‘ Lady, when I behold thy thoughtful eye
Dwelling benignantly upon thy child,
Or hear thee, in maternal accents mild,
Speak of departed friends so tenderly —
It seems to me as years now long gone by
Were come again, with early visions fraught,
And hopes sublime, and heavenly musings, caught
From those kind eyes that watch’d my infancy !
Friend of my mother ! often in my heart
Thy kindred image shall with her’s arise,
The throb of holier feeling to impart !
And aye that gentle maid, whom sweetest ties
Of human care around thy soul entwine,
Shall with a brother’s love be bound to mine.’

The notes present an entertaining selection of historical or topographical antiquities ; and the author seems to be a well-informed person altogether, with a very decent poetical taste.

Art. 19. *Bodiam Castle*: a Poem, in Six Cantos. With Notes. 8vo. pp. 296. 10s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.
An inoffensive grunter of the octo-syllabic sty.

‘The evening sky is red and clear,
The gale is hush’d to rest,
The ling’ring sea-birds homewards steer,
The wild duck seeks the lonely mere,
The wren her mossy nest:
Till now, as deeper shades prevail,
The owl skims along the dale,
And, screaming, seems to loathe the hour
That calls her from her ivy-bower.’
Te tum, te ti, te ti, te tum,
The days are gone, the nights are come!

— and so forth, to the end of the chapter of Walter Scott.

Art. 20. *Sixty-five Sonnets*; with Prefatory Remarks on the Accordance of the Sonnet with the Powers of the English Language: also, a few Miscellaneous Poems. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

‘The sum of consequences,’ says this author, in his elaborate preface, ‘is that the bulk of English sonnets, compared with an equal quantity of other short composition, contains probably about as much less original thinking as it ought to contain more.’ With this ‘*sum of consequences*,’ or marrow of the author’s meditations, we beg leave to deposit his preface in the hands of our readers, and proceed to a brief notice of his ‘*Sixty-five Sonnets*,’ all in a row.

‘Her heart broke not; but *had* it for her weal
‘*Twere* best.’ P. 63.

This is a fine bold instance of the substitution of one tense for another; and the omission of the comma, after ‘*had it*,’ renders the following ‘*‘Twere*’ still more luminous.

— ‘She breathes, and so do they who lie
Tranced in obliviousness; whom pharmacy
Can hurt no further if it cannot heal —
Oh! see, how Sorrow hath the art to steal
The essence that to life its value gives,
Yet, as in mockery, still the victim lives,
Like those, in restless sleep who move and feel;
Poor earthly ghost! whose soul is in the grave;
Whose eye no ray of hope e’er more can view;
Thou minds’t me, when I look on thy distress,
Of flowers that spring within a darksome cave,
Sickly, devoid of odour or of hue,
The forms of sweetness, faint and colourless!’

This is in the true modern *metaphysic of antithesis*. The secret is, to say a man is sick, and yet well; black, and white; happy, and miserable; roguish, and honourable; dead, and alive, all at

once. Behold the true receipt of a fashionable romance, in verse or prose!

— “*Velut ægri somnia.*”

We do not mean to assert that there are not varieties of fantastical dulness, and bold excesses of contrasted absurdity, in the small book before us, quite equal to the preceding; but this we humbly conceive to be sufficient for the sonnet, as managed by the present author; and therefore we prefer to give a second extract from a different portion of his papers. For instance:

‘Nor need we, my friend, be dismay’d,
Though Plutus his smile should refuse,
While still we can call to our aid
And Friendship, and Love, and the Muse:

‘But, with juice of enspiriment rare,
And with these our repast to control;
We’ll drown the foul harpies of care,
And wash off their stains from the soul.’

Art. 21. *The Minstrel of the Glen*: and other Poems. By Henry Stebbing. 8vo. pp. 137. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Disgust, ineffable, is a sure attendant on the sight of one of these ephemeral tadpole productions, spawned from the muddy pond of Walter Scott’s eternal imitators.

Βρεκεκεξ, βρεκεκεξ, κοαξ, κοαξ,

is the incessant chorus of this youngling fry of the old cock-croaker; and his own masterly discords are reiterated by his puny pupils, until the loud dissonance of genius is lost in the would-be warble of imbecility.

‘Like a pale soft cloud of loveliness
When the beam of beauty on it press,
So thin that evening’s darkening blue
Is seen its silky softness through, —
So light that if a sigh should stray,
’Twould fade in air and die away.
By the lone bower a pale form stands,
Mute fixed its eye and clasped its hands, —
Slowly it moves away — no sound
Falls from the step upon the ground; —
Noiseless it moves as o’er the stream
Falls the last light of evening’s beam.

‘Hark — hearest thou not that shriek of pain?
Again — and again — and again.’ *Mr. Stebbing.*

“Another — and another — and another.” *Lord Byron.*

Thus it is, that the wild vagaries of genius lead their injudicious imitators wrong, and delight so to lead them.

We are compelled to tell Mr. Henry Stebbing that there is not the shadow of a chance of his ever becoming a poet. *Hæc non*

non succedit — aliâ aggrediamur viâ — should be his cheerful motto.

Art. 22. *Illustrations of Reflection*, with other Poems. By G. H. Toulmin. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

The author of this volume seems to have been a traveller, and to have improved his opportunities: but all this, and much more, may be compatible with the entire want of a poetic taste; and we are so often compelled to lament the disunion, where the contrary has been the opinion of the person most concerned, that we cannot wonder at an additional example being furnished for our catalogue of tuneful failures, in the present instance. We do, however, wonder that so many youthful suitors, who (to use a commercial phrase) might "bring their goods to a much better market," should continue to pay their addresses to those sullen and wayward ladies, called "the *ten*" by Sir Harry in *High Life Below Stairs*, but usually reckoned the *nine* in other compositions. Hear what Mr. Toulmin says of '*Affection*' in North America.

'Where on the Western Continent, a screen
Extending wide, the Appalachia's seen —
Conceal'd in lofty shades the mimic bird,
Mellifluent, in varied notes is heard —
A solitude of ages dark around,
Pre-eminent in woods, *Affection's* found!
Not to the living: — war delights alone
The *savage*, from his youth to evil prone;
Refinement, love, the chaste endear'd caress,
When two young hearts in bliss united press,
Unknown! — hate and revenge, instead, employ
A dæmon spirit eager to destroy;
Yet, though supreme, his youth to war is led,
Virtue appears, — *Affection* for the dead!
Pure beam of love, that shines in mental night,
In gloom diffusive sheds celestial light —
O! sacred feeling, that can triumph where
The grave, rank fest'ring, taints the wholesome air.'

In this '*wholesome air*' we must, however unwillingly, leave the author; only admonishing him, in his second edition, to correct the press in the quotation from Martial; giving *traderet* instead of *tradiret*; *Arria* instead of *Aria*, (who reminds us of the *Mal'aria* above); and *quod* instead of *hoc*.

Art. 23. *The Recluse of the Pyrenees*; a Poem. 8vo. pp. 64. Longman and Co.

This poem is *all about* 'Young Mansel.' We know not who young Mansel may be: but of this we are tolerably certain, that the reader of '*The Recluse of the Pyrenees*' will scarcely be able to guess at that fact more clearly than any one else. — In sober sadness, the book is very dull. It imitates (as who does not?) Lord Byron; and it teaches nearly as little as it delights. *Ecece signum*.

' Indig-

' Indignantly offended Reason views
 The puffed up creature of a narrow span,
 The holy sanctity of heav'n abuse,
 To play the tyrant o'er his brother-man.
 And of all tyranny that is the worst,
 Which, not content its slaves alone to bind,
 Debases them in fetters doubly curst,
 That even cramp the free immortal mind.'

Ecce iterum :

' A living spirit breathes on her mountains,
 Where men bear a mind as clear as the fountains
 That bound from the rocks, like heroes to war,
 When led by the beam of Liberty's star !
 There souls are found that tyrants ne'er could chain,
 There Freedom found a home, when driv'n from the plain.
 A fortress secure in the deep-vaulted caves,
 Where the wild Chamois crouches—the storm-demon
 raves.'

Satis, superque.

Art. 24. *Antonia*, a Poem : with Notes descriptive of the Plague in Malta. By Murdo Young. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

A fact not less singular than novel is recorded in the commencement of this poem ; namely, that

' There is an isle, where morning's breath is sweet,
 And even's cool sigh is soothing after heat !'

Yet there are, in truth, so many islands to which this description is applicable, and so few parts of the known world, whether islands, continents, or otherwise, in which the cool of the evening is not found refreshing after a sultry day, that, if it were the object of this poet to make the reader acquainted with the place, it might have been as well to have given him the longitude and latitude of it at once, for fear of mistakes. We must differ from the author as to the quantity of the second syllable in the word *Melita*, which he makes long ; and also as to the legitimacy of such words as '*careering*' (which he uses more than once), and '*fane*,' used as synonymous for house, and divested of its real sense ; which is that of a sacred abode. The reader of *Antonia*, who wishes to rise from the entertainment *conviva satur*, should be less ardent in expectation than patient of disappointment, and more disposed to overlook imperfection than to discover and appreciate the beauties of poesy.

NOVEL.

Art. 25. *Harrington, a Tale ; and Ormond, a Tale.* By Maria Edgeworth. Author of "*Comic Dramas*," "*Tales of Fashionable Life*," &c. &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Hunter. We perused these tales at the time of their appearance with
 avidity,

avidity, but, having accidentally mislaid them, are thus late in our testimony to their merits. We find, however, that a second reading has neither decreased our interest nor diminished our pleasure. So much pathos is displayed in some of Miss Edgeworth's scenes that the heart always responds; and so much of nature in all of them, that they are ever fresh. The portraits which she draws are inimitable; and the wit and humour of her dialogue make us intolerant of the monotony of common-life-conversation.

We do not think, however, that the fair author has been so successful as usual in pointing the moral of either of these two tales. That of *Harrington* is intended to counteract the prejudices which are stated to exist against the Jews; and which she, it seems, as well as other writers, has been charged with nourishing. We do not just now recollect how this allegation against her is founded: but we cannot, in the first place, imagine that the present age is disgraced by harbouring any such inveterate prejudices against that class of people as are here insinuated; nor, in the next place, can we see how a tale in which *all* the Jewish characters introduced are represented without spot, or blemish, can assist in dissipating those prejudices. The evidence goes too far to satisfy any person who would *not* allow that there are good as well as bad individuals among both Jews and Christians; and with those who *do* admit this truth, the question stands just as it did.

Ormond, the hero of the second tale, is intended to be 'in some respects the reverse of Vivian'; or, in other words, one whose success and happiness are the consequence of his decision of character, and his dependence on himself: but here the object intended is not so perceptible as in the other tale. We do not complain of this, however; nor should we have mentioned it, if it had not been suggested to us in the preface that such was the intention of the writer. We are aware of the extreme difficulty of making every incident, or even the whole tenor, of a history tend towards the support of one hypothesis; and we have some doubt of its utility when effected. Such a warping of every fact must destroy, in a great measure, the probabilities of the general story; and in proportion with its want of similarity to common life must be the inefficacy of its moral. All that is required, in such compositions, is that the general morality of the book should be preserved; and that the reader should feel, on rising from its perusal, that sort of impression which should acknowledge the identity of the picture, and stimulate to an imitation of that conduct which has excited his amiable propensities. All this Miss E. has done; and we care not whether she has kept precisely to the one moral that she had in view, or not.

We shall not now give any extracts from these tales, but only point out the scene of the riots in *Harrington*, and the history of King Corny and his black islands in *Ormond*, as truly delightful, and equal to any thing in any modern novelist; not excepting even the "*veiled*" northern author.

EDUCATION.

- Art. 26. *The Betrothed Cousins*, a Tale for the Use of Young Persons. By Mrs. E. Hamilton. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Harris. 1818.

A very few pages of this tale are sufficient to undeceive any reader, who may have been induced by the title-page to consider it as a posthumous work by the late well known Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton. It abounds with grammatical inaccuracies, and the story is insipid, though its tendency is undoubtedly moral.

- Art. 27. *The School-Fellows*: a Moral Tale. By the Author of "The Twin Sisters," &c. 12mo. pp. 274. 4s. bound. Souter. 1818.

The commencement of this tale is very natural, and the description of the poor little school-girl's feelings is almost pathetic: the anecdotes of the lamented Princess Charlotte are well told, and interesting; and the book may be commended as a work of much morality and merit.

- Art. 28. *Principles of Punctuation*; or the Art of Pointing familiarized, and illustrated by Passages from the best Writers, &c. By Cecil Hartley, M. A. Composed for the Use of Seminaries of Education. Small 12mo. pp. 144. 3s. bound. Wilson. 1818.

A portable volume, containing not only excellent rules for punctuation, but many other directions for writing correctly, which will be found extremely useful.

- Art. 29. *Winter Evenings*; or Tales of Travellers. By Maria Hack. Small 12mo. 4 Vols. 10s. Half-bound. Darton and Harvey. 1818.

Several interesting narratives are here very ably abridged from the works of celebrated travellers, and interspersed with such questions and explanations as are likely to make every circumstance intelligible. The fair compiler is intitled to much gratitude for this instructive and agreeable publication.

- Art. 30. *Ashford Rectory*; or the Spoiled Child Reformed, &c. By Frances Thurtle, Author of "The History of France," &c. Second Edition. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hailes. 1818.

Mrs. Thurtle has the merit of endeavouring to mingle some scientific instruction with moral examples and amusing narrative; and both the architectural and heraldic particulars here introduced are clearly and ingeniously set forth.

- Art. 31. *The Metamorphoses*, or Effects of Education, a Tale. By the Author of "Aunt Mary's Tales," &c. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Darton, jun. 1818.

As containing an interesting and useful little story, we have pleasure in recommending this little volume; though we wish that the 'effects of education' had been more apparent in the language of Captain Darnley, who exclaims, (p. 113.), 'How beautiful Isabella dances!'

MISCELLANEOUS.

- Art. 32. *Walks in Oxford*, comprising an Original, Historical, and Descriptive Account of the Colleges, Halls, and Public Buildings of the University, &c. &c. By W. M. Wade. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Law and Whittaker.

We receive with no small gratification a work of which not only the academic student, but the visitor at Oxford, has long since felt and lamented the deficiency; namely, a concise, portable, and tolerably cheap description of the colleges, halls, and antiquities of that magnificent city, and celebrated seat of learning. To the present author much commendation is doubtless due, if not for the composition of original matter, yet for a diligent and judicious selection of materials from the more extended and valuable publications of those who have preceded him in the same path. The plates are skilfully executed, and give a faithful idea of the views which they are designed to represent.

- Art. 33. *The Acadian Code of Signals*, on New Principles, calculated for the various Numeral and Alphabetical Symbols, used at Sea and by Land; with a flexible Key and Instructions. By a practical Telegraphist. 4to. 15s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

According to the plan of this writer, a large square or chart is formed, consisting of 99 horizontal and 99 vertical columns, and therefore containing in all 9801 squares, to each of which is assigned a particular word or short sentence. Flags are then to be hoisted, under various combinations, so as to indicate any number in the horizontal and vertical columns; when, by referring to the chart, the specific word intended to be expressed will be found in that particular small square in which the two columns unite. We can believe that such a plan is practicable; but how far it may be useful, and preferable to former methods, we much doubt: for it appears to us that the code now in use in the British navy, according to Sir H. Popham's system, improved, is superior on account of its quicker and more extensive communication. The signals here proposed are similar to most others in combination of flags; and the great difficulty is to select them so as to answer all the purposes intended; enabling persons to make them out in calms, or in thick weather, or in action during the prevalence of much smoke. Several of the flags here designated would be liable to doubt or confusion in such circumstances, from the colours not being sufficiently distinct; especially when the flag is flapping to the mast, and its compartments are not extended to the view: though indeed this inconvenience may be somewhat obviated by the mode now adopted in service, of spreading out the flag by stretchers: which is particularly necessary in distant signals, when colours could not otherwise be ascertained. The code before us seems to be better adapted for communications by land than by sea.

- Art. 34. *The Island: or a Series of Letters*, containing many interesting Facts never before published, and recommending an
Asylum

Asylum for the Destitute or Orphan Daughters of Clergymen, and Military and Naval Officers. By an Orphan. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Hatchard. 1818.

If a plan be in itself good and eligible, all temperate endeavours to recommend or promote it will have their utility: we hope, therefore, that these letters may meet with attention; since the fair writer's views seem to be religious and benevolent, while the anecdotes which she relates have an appearance of truth, and forcibly excite commiseration. Though the provision here proposed for the orphan daughters of clergymen would be superfluous, because an establishment already exists in which they are maintained and educated, we should join with the author in hailing the institution of a similar refuge for the orphans of military and naval officers.

Art. 35. *Voyage to Locuta.* A Fragment. With Etchings and Notes of Illustration. By Lemuel Gulliver, jun. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Hatchard. 1818.

Intelligent children are generally pleased with riddles, and similar exercises of their ingenuity; we presume, therefore, that the present lively little allegory will prove an agreeable and useful offering.

Art. 36. *The Annual Biography and Obituary for the Year 1819.* Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 512. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

Of this volume, we have principally to say that it forms a continuation of those which we lately noticed in our pages, (see our Number for last October,) and contains the memoirs of individuals of notoriety who died in 1817 and 1818; of whom the most remarkable are the Queen, Lord Ellenborough, Madame de Staël, Sir Samuel Romilly, Dr. C. Burney, Mr. G. Rose, and Sir Thomas Bernard. With these are inserted notices of Admiral Sir Richard Onslow, Captain Sir James Yeo, Mr. Beloe, Mr. Lewis, (author of the Monk,) and other persons of less importance in the eye of the public: followed by an analytical notice of several late biographical works, at the head of which we observe rather unexpectedly Miss Aikin's Memoirs of the Court of Queen Elizabeth and the whole concludes with an alphabetical index of deaths for 1818, copied from News-papers and Magazines, with a few occasional insertions from original sources. The execution of the book is of a very mixed character, the lives being evidently compiled by different hands; some of the *errata* pointed out in our notice of the former volumes have been corrected: but we have perceived, even in a transient perusal, several mistakes, particularly as to dates, in the volume now given to the public. The number of lives contained in it is thirty-six: the plan is the same as that of the former volumes: and the chief difference is in the greater promptitude in publishing.

In the account of Dr. C. Burney, it is erroneously mentioned that his father-in-law, Dr. Rose, was the institutor of the Monthly Review. Dr. R. was an original contributor, but neither the institutor nor ever a proprietor of it.

Art.

Art. 37. *A Narrative of the Operations of the Royalist Armies, in the Interior of France, during the Usurpation of Bonaparte in 1815.* From the "*Panache D'Henri IV. ou les Phalanges Royales,*" written by M. Delandine de St. Esprit, Chevalier de Malthe, Envoy-extraordinary of the King in 1815, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris, &c. &c. Translated by James Teissier, Esq. 8vo. pp. 315. 9s. Boards. Richardson. 1819.

The author of this volume is one of those ardent partisans of royalty with whom France, in this her day of political division, so much abounds; and in whose eyes an adherent of Bonaparte, or even a well-wisher to the doctrines of the Revolution, is little else than an enemy of human nature. M. Delandine was born in the south of France, and educated for the law as an *avocat* or counsellor: but, on the first approach of the allied troops, in the spring of 1814, he forsook his legal occupation, and made himself extremely active in promoting their success. The return of Bonaparte from Elba afforded him another and a more signal opportunity of evincing his loyalty. Instead of quitting France with a number of the King's friends, he boldly remained in the interior, participated in the operations of the Duke of Angoulême in the neighbourhood of the Rhone, and was recompensed for his zeal by the thanks of a Prince of the blood, and by admission to the order of Malta; a reward which, in the eye of a Frenchman, forms a substantial return for the greatest sufferings and privations. Unfortunately, we cannot add the literary wreath to these flattering testimonials, M. Delandine being certainly not a pure, and, we apprehend, far from a correct writer. He divides his book into a number of sections; and, not contented with relating the exploits of real warfare in La Vendée and the vicinity of the Rhone, he expatiates on 'an army of Normandy, an army of Bretagne, an army of the North, and an army of the East,' of which those of our fraternity who at that time visited France were not so fortunate as even to hear the names. The title of 'army of the North' may mean an assemblage of the household troops under the orders of Louis XVIII., though *detachment* would have been the more appropriate epithet for so slender a *corps*: but what person, either among our calculating politicians or the all-believing readers of our journals, ever heard in 1815 of an 'army of the East'?

The style of the original of this narrative is extremely florid, and denotes the author to be one of those *têtes exaltées* who invariably run to an extreme in politics; and it is in vain that Mr. Teissier has apologized for this fault, or has attempted to soften it in the translation: for no curtailments, however judicious, can counterbalance the exaggerations of the author. In some passages of the version, (such as p. 25., 'the anxiety of the duke was raised to the summit,') we discovered inattention to the difference of idiom between the two languages: but the general result of our examination is a feeling of regret not that the translator has been deficient in his duty, but that he has laboured

at a task so uninteresting to the majority of the English public. All well-informed persons among us are aware that a large proportion of the French population may be deemed royalists: but very few can enter with pleasure into the minute details of this volume, when the individuals, the localities, and the circumstances, are all new and unknown, and too often remind us of the tedium excited by the uncouth array of strange names which meet the eye of the reader on opening Macpherson's *Ossian*.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 38. *Alpha and Omega; or, A Minister's closing Address.* Preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Stafford, August 31. 1817. By the Reverend Joseph Maude, M. A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

An affectionate and affecting valedictory discourse, preached on the occasion of the departure of a respectable clergyman from the place and congregation, which had for some years been the witnesses of his ministerial labours. Mr. Maude is a judicious and sensible writer; and if his compositions be, as we doubt not, an index to his heart, and faithful interpreters of his real sentiments and personal conduct, he must be an excellent and conscientious pastor. The only part of the present sermon, from which we feel obliged to withhold our countenance, is that in which the preacher enumerates the subjects of his past discourses, and appeals to his congregation to attest the fact of his having faithfully discharged the duties of a public teacher of religion. It is true that this is qualified, in some degree, by an attempt at disclaiming every idea of egotism: but we are surprized that the judgment and taste of Mr. Maude should not have dictated its entire omission.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We hope to fulfil the request of X. Y. Z. in our next Appendix, which will be published with the September Number.

Veritas may be right in his own apprehension, but in verity we assure him that he is quite wrong in point of fact.

It will always give us pleasure to receive such liberal communications, and welcome gratulations, as those which have come to us under the signature of *Amicus Priscus*.

An accident prevented us from according with *F. B.*'s wish in this Number, but we shall probably attend to it in our next.

☞ Subscribers to the GENERAL INDEX to the New Series of the Monthly Review, and all possessors of sets of that portion of the work, are requested to apply speedily for copies of so necessary a key to this multifarious record of literature, without which their sets will not be complete; a very limited number of the Index having been printed.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1819.

ART. I. *A Voyage of Discovery*, made under the Orders of the Admiralty, in His Majesty's Ships *Isabella* and *Alexander*, for the Purpose of exploring Baffin's Bay, and inquiring into the Probability of a North-west Passage. By John Ross, K. S. Captain, Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 430. With Thirty-two coloured Plates, Maps, Charts, &c. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Murray: 1819.

ART. II. *A Journal of a Voyage of Discovery to the Arctic Regions*, performed between the 4th of April and the 18th of November, 1818, in His Majesty's Ship *Alexander*, William Edward Parry, Esq. Lieut. and Commander. By an Officer of the *Alexander*. 8vo. pp. 112. 3s.* R. Phillips. 1819.

ART. III. *Remarks on the Account of the late Voyage of Discovery to Baffin's Bay*, published by Captain J. Ross, R. N. By Captain Edward Sabine, Royal Artillery. 8vo. pp. 40. 2s. Booth.

ART. IV. *An Explanation of Captain Sabine's Remarks on the late Voyage of Discovery to Baffin's Bay*. By Captain John Ross, R. N. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. 6d. Murray.

ON the failure of the two late Arctic expeditions, the public disappointment seems to have been fully proportionate to the expectations which were entertained of their success. Of that which, under the auspices of Captain Buchan, was destined to shape its course to the north pole, we have been hitherto furnished with no official relation; and, consequently, we are bound in candour to suspend our opinion, although we can readily believe that it *came back* for the most solid and valid of all reasons, namely, that it could not *go on*. The other, commanded by Captain Ross, of which the principal object was to explore a passage between the northern Atlantic and Pacific oceans, has certainly proved unsatisfactory, so far as that no such passage has been ascertained. The Captain, indeed, seems even to be

* Being the first number of a projected Series of Modern Voyages and Travels, accessible to the purses of the present times.

fully impressed with the conviction that none such exists in the regions where he searched for it; while several of his officers contend, that he formed his opinion on very hasty and imperfect evidence; and the Lords of the Admiralty may be presumed to entertain similar sentiments, since they have despatched a fresh equipment, under Lieut. Parry, with a view to the farther prosecution of the inquiry. Meanwhile, in *our expedition*, Captain Ross is still intitled to take the lead, inasmuch as a gay and handsome quarto should have the precedence of a plain and homely octavo. Yet the more condensed and unpretending Journal, which rumour ascribes to the pen of the assistant surgeon, Mr. Fisher, of the *Alexander*, will occasionally claim our regards, especially when its statements are at variance with those of its more splendid associate.

Captain Ross, in his Introduction, assumes the tone of a simple nautical journalist, whose education has taught him to act and not to question, to obey and not to discuss opinions; disclaiming, at the same time, all adventitious embellishments of style, and professing an anxiety to render his book useful rather than amusing. In this humble spirit of *plain sailing*, he proceeds to lay before his readers the details of the equipment of the expedition intrusted to his care, and a copy of his instructions; thus enabling every competent judge to pronounce on the conformity of his conduct to the views and orders of his employers. We purposely refrain from swelling this article with a particular account of the liberal and provident manner in which the preparations and outfit of the voyage were conducted, because the public have long been familiar with their nature and amount, through the channel of the daily prints: but the details are very properly recorded in the present volume, as an authentic memorial, which may be of service on future occasions of contemplated discoveries, and which may transmit to posterity the generous and skilful arrangements adopted by the Admiralty. We may be permitted, however, to express our surprize at not finding in the roll of appointments the name of any professed naturalist or draughtsman: for Captain Sabine and Mr. Bushnan had other stated and appropriate duties to perform; although the former, as an *amateur*, might occasionally indulge in his favourite study of ornithology, and the latter might amuse his leisure by sketching a mountain-scene, or an iceberg.

Independently of the grand and leading object, namely, the discovery of a passage between the two oceans by the way of Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, Captain Ross's instructions likewise embraced the furtherance of several subsidiary, though

though still important subjects of inquiry; such as the improvement of the geography and hydrography of the Arctic regions, — the variation and inclination of the magnetic needle, — the intensity of the magnetic force, — the effect produced on the electrometer and on the magnetic needle by the Aurora Borealis, — the temperature of the sea at different depths, — the modifications of refraction produced by fields of ice, — the state of meteorology in high latitudes, — the height, direction, and strength of tides and currents, &c. Lastly, the Captain was enjoined to omit no proper opportunity of collecting and preserving specimens of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, and to have drawings made of the larger animals.

The introduction to the anonymous narrative likewise sets forth the objects of the expedition, and the provisions for its accommodation, but in an abridged and general form: that of the quarto will best gratify the curiosity of professional mariners and men of science, while that of the octavo is more adapted to popular perusal. The circumstances attending the departure of the ships, however, and their progress to Shetland, with the occurrences at Lerwick, are more fully and pleasingly related by the Journalist than by his commander.

On the 4th of April, 1818, the ships dropped down to the mouth of the City-canal, which they entered amid the acclamations of a crowded populace. 'During the short time we lay here,' says the Journalist, 'we were, as usual, visited by several parties of ladies and gentlemen, who all appeared to be as much interested in the success of our undertaking as we could possibly be ourselves; but, *by way of comfort*, they frequently expressed their concern for our safety in such a hazardous enterprise.' On the 25th, the pilot took leave, off Cromer; and, on the 30th, the ships anchored in Brassa Sound. Here they laid in water and — a fiddler; adjusted several of their instruments for the voyage, and experienced the unremitting hospitality of William Mouat, of Gardie, Esq. While Lieutenant Parry and Captain Sabine were occupied with observations on the dip of the needle, and on the intensity of the magnetic force, others were employed in exploring the three kingdoms of nature: but of their trophies we hear nothing, if we except the fragment of the back-bone of a whale, which was rather hastily pronounced to be part of the skeleton of a mammoth. The anonymous writer seems to have employed his time more to the edification of his readers, in noting some particulars of the rude and bare scenery of Shetland, and of the manners of the

inhabitants. His remarks, which are impartial, and naturally suggested by the observation of the moment, though possessing little novelty, will hardly fail to interest those who are strangers to these remote and desolate islands.

On the 3d of May, the ships again stood out to sea, and, on the 8th, in lat. $59^{\circ} 28'$ N. long. $17^{\circ} 22'$ W. where a bank is laid down in Steel's chart, they could find no soundings in 130 fathoms. On the 17th it was also ascertained that the sunken land of *Buss* has no existence, at least in the position indicated by the charts. Captain Kater's instrument for finding the altitude, when the horizon is obscured by clouds or haze, was observed to answer very well in calm weather; the trials of Troughton's spinning horizon were less successful: but those that were made with Dr. Wollaston's dip-sector prove, that this ingenious contrivance may be advantageously used in correcting errors arising from any unusually refractive power of the atmosphere. 'Another diurnal observation,' according to the Journalist, 'is made when the weather admits of it, namely, that of the colour of the sky. This is done by the means of a small book having fourteen blue-colour [ed] leaves of different shades, each regularly numbered: by comparing these with the sky, the number of the leaf corresponding with it is noted as its colour at that time. Simple as this observation, or rather the instrument by which it is made, may appear, it has been dignified with as profound a name as any we have on board, it being called cyanameter.*

The same writer infers, from several very feasible arguments, that a westerly current sets out of Davis's Straits, round Cape Farewell, and that, in summer, it is considerably freshened by the quantity of ice dissolved in it. He likewise notes the occasional appearance of exhausted wheat-ears (*Motacilla cenanthe*, Lin.) about the ship; and of great numbers of different species of birds about the icebergs, some of which followed the ships to a considerable distance. As the bergs and the smaller pieces of ice became more frequent, the temperature of the atmosphere was considerably lowered. In clear weather, the sea was observed to have a light brownish colour, and, when foggy or hazy, a turbid appearance.

At two o'clock, P. M. on the 26th, in lat. $58^{\circ} 36'$, Captain Ross and his crew came in sight of the first iceberg.

'Imagination presented it in many grotesque figures: at one time it looked something like a white lion and horse rampant,

* Wherefore not cyanometer? Rev.

which

which the quick fancy of sailors, in their harmless fondness for omens, naturally enough shaped into the lion and unicorn of the King's arms, and they were delighted accordingly with the good luck it seemed to augur. And truly our first introduction to one of these huge masses, with which we were afterwards likely to grow so familiar, was a sort of epoch in our voyage, that might well excuse a sailor's divination, particularly when the aspect with which it was invested tended to inspire confidence, and keep up the energies of the men; a feeling so requisite for an enterprise like ours, where [in which] even their curiosity might be chilled * for want of excitement.

'It is hardly possible to imagine any thing more exquisite than the variety of tints which these icebergs display; by night as well as by day they glitter with a vividness of colour beyond the power of art to represent. While the white portions have the brilliancy of silver, their colours are as various and splendid as those of the rainbow, their ever-changing disposition producing effects as singular as they were novel and interesting.'

All this *colouring*, we must confess, is quite beyond the reach of our sober optics.

On the 31st, the coast of Greenland was dimly seen from the mast-head; on the first of June, Capt. R. entered Davis's Straits; and, on the 4th of the same month, the weather being clear, the land was most distinctly observed at the supposed distance of about sixty miles: exhibiting, on a nearer approach, the dismal aspect of snowy-peaked mountains, intermingled with black and bare cliffs, on which, from their steepness, neither snow nor ice could rest. On the 9th, Lieutenant Parry and the officers of the *Alexander* brought their instruments on a grounded iceberg, about three or four miles from the shore, or rather from some islands which intervened between them and the main land, in lat. $68^{\circ} 22' 15''$ N. and long. $53^{\circ} 42'$ W.; this part of the coast being laid down in the charts nearly *three degrees* to the eastward of the spot at which it ought to be placed. Here they took some good observations. On the 12th, we again find them made fast to a berg, for want of wind: but a light breeze springing up in the afternoon, they resumed their tardy progress northward through the ice.

'In the evening,' says the Journalist, 'the weather being clear and serene, both sky and water presented the most beautiful scene I ever beheld. The former, near the horizon, was interspersed with fleecy clouds, which decreased gradually in colour and density, according to their height, until, in the zenith, they disappeared entirely, and there the sky appeared of the most beautiful

* Would it not *naturally* be somewhat chilled by an iceberg?
'Rev:

cerulean blue. The water, on the other hand, or, rather, the ice on its surface, presented a spectacle so superbly grand that I know of no other scene in nature with which to compare it. Let any one fancy himself situated in the centre of an immense plain, extending farther than the eye can penetrate, filled with masses of ice whiter than Parian marble, and presenting a greater variety of forms than the most fertile imagination can conceive, and as endless in size as in shape, from the stupendous icebergs which stood at least a hundred feet above the water, to those small fragments that were only discernible above the surface. I say, let a person fancy himself situated in the midst of a chaos of similar objects, and he will find it much easier to conceive than express the grandeur of such a scene. The sun being at the time a few degrees only above the horizon, added much to the magnificence of this sublime prospect.'

This is plain and intelligible painting, though it soars not to either the diurnal or the *nocturnal* iridescence of the ice.

In the afternoon of the 14th June, in 'lat. 63° 54', the governor of the Danish settlement on Kron Prins Island came on board the *Isabella*, and mentioned that the late winter had been unusually severe; the sea having been frozen near his station early in December, whereas that event seldom happens in other seasons before the middle of February. During his residence of eleven years in Greenland, he had remarked that the intensity of the cold continued to increase. The entire population of the island consisted of himself and family, six Danes, and a hundred Esquimaux, whose occupation chiefly consisted in the capture of whales and seals.

At Wayat's or Hare Island, various observations were again taken; and about thirty or forty whale-ships were found fast to icebergs along shore. The only four-footed animals observed were two or three white hares, of large dimensions, and a fox; and the catalogue of birds is limited to the Ptarmigan, Snow-bunting, Lark, and Snipe. Among the mineral substances, mention is made of a great quantity of chalcedony, but in small pieces; detached masses of granite; and a stratum of an inferior sort of slaty coal. It resulted from the observations that, in the charts issued by the Admiralty, an error is committed of five degrees of longitude, and half a degree of latitude: — a striking proof of the little stress that can be laid on the accuracy of positions determined by the rude observations of those who are engaged in the whale-fishery.

Ice now beset the ships in various and extensive forms; and much skill, ardour, and perseverance, were manifested in *working* through the narrow channels and floes. John
Sacheuse,

Sacheuse, a native Esquimaux, whose short and eventful story has been recorded in most of the periodical publications, and who proved of essential service on the present expedition, was sent on shore, on the 30th of June, to a small Danish settlement, on the south side of Jacob's Bight, to communicate with the natives; and he returned with seven of them in their canoes.

‘ Their village,’ according to Captain Ross, ‘ lying on the south side of the bay, appeared to consist of a few huts made of seal-skins, sufficient for the residence of about fifty persons. Being desirous of procuring a sledge and dogs, I offered them a rifle musket for one completely fitted, which they promised to fetch; with much honesty of principle, however, refusing to accept the rifle till they had brought the sledge. They soon returned, bringing the sledge and dogs in a boat managed by five women, dressed in deer-skins. The boat was called an umiack, and is rowed by the women standing. I found that two of these women, taller than the rest, were daughters of a Danish resident by an Esquimaux woman. One of the men also was the son of a Dane, and they were all of the colour of Mulattoes. The man had been in charge of the Danish factory which was burnt by the crew of the *Eagle*, and I therefore gave him a letter to the Governor of Greenland, acquainting him with the circumstance, and describing what I had done.

‘ We soon became intimate with our visitors and invited them into the cabin, where they were treated with coffee and biscuit, and their portraits taken. After leaving the cabin, they danced Scotch reels on the deck with our sailors, to the animating strains of our musician.

‘ Sacheuse's mirth and joy exceeded all bounds; and, with a good-humoured officiousness, justified by the important distinction which his superior knowledge now gave him, he performed the office of master of the ceremonies. An Esquimaux master of ceremonies to a ball on the deck of one of His Majesty's ships in the icy seas of Greenland, was an office somewhat new, but Nash himself could not have performed his functions in a manner more appropriate. It did not belong even to Nash to combine in his own person, like Jack, the discordant qualifications of seaman, interpreter, draughtsman, and master of ceremonies to a ball, with those of an active fisher of seals, and a hunter of white bears.

‘ A daughter of the Danish resident, about eighteen years of age, and by far the best looking of the group, was the object of Jack's particular attentions; which, being observed by one of our officers, he gave him a lady's shawl, ornamented with spangles, as an offering for her acceptance. He presented it in a most respectful, and not ungraceful manner, to the damsel, who bashfully took a pewter ring from her finger and presented it to him in return; rewarding him, at the same time, with an eloquent

smile, which could leave no possible doubt on our Esquimaux's mind that he had made an impression on her heart.

After the ball, coffee was again served, and at eight o'clock the party left us, well pleased with their entertainment, and promising to come back with a *skin boat*, an article which, I conceived, might be useful on the ice. I permitted Sacheuse to escort them, chiefly that he might hasten their movements, and search for specimens of natural history.

There was now a considerable change in the appearance of the mountains from the melting of the snow; and in the morning a light breeze arose. I was surprised that our Esquimaux and his countrymen did not appear, and stood towards the village at the foot of the mountain, firing guns, but to no purpose. At six o'clock, the breeze having freshened considerably, I sent a boat ashore to bring him off; when the poor fellow was found with his collar-bone broken, having, with the idea, as expressed by himself, of "*Plenty powder, plenty kill*," overloaded his gun, and the violent recoil had caused this accident, which prevented his managing his canoe; he was brought on board, and the surgeon reported that it would be some time before he could be cured.

During the night of the second of July, the number of icebergs which were passed exceeded a thousand; presenting, as usual, the most fantastical shapes. A few of them, selected for parade, make a conspicuous figure among Captain Ross's plates; particularly that which is intended to be viewed by moon-light, *during sun-shine*: the whole bespeaking an elegant freedom of pencil, and an imagination little trammelled by *degrees of latitude*. The silver plating of this piece is quite unique, and wants only the *frosting* to be complete at *all points*. Its altitude, too, very agreeably confounds our scholastic notions of *gravity*.

In latitude $74^{\circ} 30'$, the *Isabella* was jammed in by the ice, and sustained a severe pressure; being lifted several feet out of the water, but without receiving any material injury. A whale-ship, a few days before, which got into a similar predicament, was less fortunate, having been literally cut in two. Alternate closings and openings of the ice, and attempts more or less successful to penetrate through it, by sawing, warping, towing, or tracking, now form the prominent topics of the Captain's diary. — A little farther on, we find him intent on the seizure of a *black and white whale*, on which we are led to expect his zoological remarks: but the unhappy animal is flinched, like other whales; and we learn from the little volume that it was a male of the ordinary sort.

August 7. the ships were again in jeopardy.

'The pressure,' says their commander, 'continuing to increase, it became a trial of strength between the ship and the ice; every support

support threatened to give way; the beams in the hold began to bend; and the iron tanks settled together. At this critical moment, when it seemed impossible for the ship to sustain the accumulating pressure much longer, she rose several feet; while the ice, which was more than six feet thick, broke against her sides, curling back on itself. The great stress now fell upon her bow, and after being again lifted up, she was carried with great violence towards the *Alexander*, which ship had hitherto been, in a great measure, defended by the *Isabella*. Every effort to avoid their getting foul of each other failed; the ice-anchors and cables broke one after another, and the sterns of the two ships came so violently into contact, as to crush to pieces a boat that could not be removed in time. The collision was tremendous, the anchors and chain-plates being broken, and nothing less expected than the loss of the masts: but, at this eventful instant, by the interposition of Providence, the force of the ice seemed exhausted; the two fields suddenly receded, and we passed the *Alexander* with comparatively little damage. The last things that hooked each other were the two bower anchors, which, being torn from the bows, remained suspended in a line between the two ships, until that of the *Alexander* gave way.

An accidental rencontre with some individuals belonging to a secluded tribe of Esquimaux, who inhabit the northern corner of Baffin's Bay, and whom Captain Ross (rather vaguely and pompously) denominates *Arctic Highlanders*, furnishes him with a copious and romantic theme: but, if we abate a few *very singular* circumstances, and make sufficient allowance for the difficulty which Sacheuse experienced in interpreting their language, which was only a dialect of his own, and in rendering his own ideas into intelligible English, we shall find them agreeing in many particulars with the southern Greenlanders, as described by Crantz and Egede. One of the oddities to which we allude is the ceremony of *pulling noses*, in token of friendly salutation. It is a comfortable consideration, however, that each man tugs at his own. This piece of etiquette is so repeatedly mentioned by the commander of the expedition, and as adopted on the part of our people, that we could be tempted to exclaim *Heigh yaw!* in our turn, had it been stated by the less marvellous Journalist; and had it not been whispered that the officers of the expedition were first informed of it on their return to Shetland. At the same time, we cautiously abstain from formally disputing the alleged fact, lest some uncourteous hand should do despite to the antient props of our own spectacles, and inflict on them such damage as might disable us from duty; while the only compensation that we could expect would be the paltry sum of some fifty pounds, awarded by a jury for breach of nasal privilege.

These

These hyperborean mountaineers are of a dirty copper colour, about five feet in height; corpulent, with the face broad, the forehead narrow and low, the mouth large, lips thick, hair black, long and lank, and the beard and mustachios scanty. They can reckon only to the number five, or at most to ten; for the accounts differ on this point; and they ascribe ridiculous powers to their *angekoks*, or *conjurers*, of whom they have generally one in each family. They likewise suppose that abundance of wood grows in the moon; and they at first imagined that our people and their vessels had come from that quarter. Their cabins are low and wretched buildings, with a roof in the form of an arch; the interstices being filled up with mud, to exclude the air. The entrance is by a long, narrow, and nearly subterraneous passage; and the floor is covered with skins, on which they sit or sleep, several families occupying one house, but each having a stone-lamp suspended from the roof, which is kept constantly burning, for the sake both of warmth and cookery. In their persons, they are dirty in the extreme; and their style of dancing is by no means characterized by delicacy. Their sledges are made entirely of bone, apparently that of the whale; and they are driven rapidly by five or more dogs, of a large and robust make, participating in the aspect of the shepherd's dog and the wolf. Their dress consists of three pieces.

'The upper one is made of seal-skin, with the hair outside, and is similar to the woman's jacket of the south Greenland; being open only near the top, so as to equal the size of the wearer's face. At the bottom it is formed like a shirt, but terminating in a tongue before and behind, the hood part being neatly trimmed with fox's skin, and made to fall back on the shoulders, or cover the head, as required. This is lined, in general, with eider-duck or awk-skins; and this lining being close at the bottom, and open near the breast, serves as a pocket. The next piece of dress, which scarcely reached the knee, is also uncomfortably small in the upper part, so that, in stooping, the skin is exposed. This is made of bear's or dog's skin, and fastened up with a string. The boots are made of seal-skin, with the hair inwards, the soles being covered with sea-horse hide; they reach over the knees, and meet the middle part of the dress. The whole [all] of these are made by the women; the needles used being of ivory, and the thread is of the sinews of the seal, split: the seams are so neat that they can scarcely be distinguished. They informed us, that in the winter, or as the weather got colder, they had a garment of bear-skins, which they put on as a cloak; but this we did not see, nor were we able to persuade them to spare any part of their dress.'

All this and much more information has Captain Ross communicated concerning his Arctic Highlanders; collecting it with

with industry from two or three short interviews with a few individuals, with whom he conversed by means of an imperfect interpreter. In their expressions of distrust, astonishment, and terror, and in their addiction to pilfering, we discover nothing in this non-descript race of beings that is inconsistent with the character and dispositions of various other savage tribes: nor need we wonder that the untutored inhabitants of an insulated spot, scarcely ever visited by strangers, should consider themselves as the only nation in the universe; attribute animation to a ship, and to a watch; or express ludicrous amazement on contemplating themselves in a looking-glass:—but that they should be destitute of every notion of a Supreme Being, of a future state, and of war; that they should be free from diseases, and not subject to die of any complaints peculiar to their own or any other country; are points on which it cannot be deemed unreasonable that we should suspend our judgment. With regard, however, to their total ignorance of navigation, the Alexander's journalist is equally explicit with Captain Ross.

'It is plain,' he remarks, 'that they have never been much to the southward of this, for they never saw a ship before, nor even a canoe. From this it is evident that they have not any communication with their countrymen to the southward. It is certainly a remarkable circumstance, that people inhabiting a sea-coast, and who procure a portion of what is essential to their existence from the ocean, as is evidenced by their clothes being made of seals' skins, and their spears of narwhal's horns, should be unprovided with canoes. That such is the case, however, seems to be placed beyond a doubt, not only by what we have learned from them, but by what we have ourselves seen; since nothing seemed to surprise them more than a boat which was launched from the ice into the water; and, on being shown Sacheuse's canoe, they did not seem at all to comprehend the use of it. This is a plain proof that navigation, even in its rudest state, is yet unknown to them; for had they ever ventured on the water, their vessels must have been made of skins, as they have not any wood.'

In another passage, the same writer informs us that each of the 'natives was provided with a kind of knife, made of small pieces or plates of iron, which were set close together in a groove made in a piece of narwhal's horn: the end piece was rivetted, but the others were kept in their places merely by being driven tightly into the groove. Very diligent inquiry was set on foot as to where they found the iron of which these knives were made, but all we could learn from them was, that they met with it near the shore, at some distance from this place. Our conjecture was, that it was native iron, and that they were afraid of giving us much information re-
specting

specting it, from an apprehension of our taking it away.'— Captain Ross supposes it to be meteoric, because it makes part of a mountain: a reason not very intelligible, since all the meteoric iron, with which we are hitherto acquainted, occurs not in the form of mountains, but in that of insulated masses. Besides, if we are correctly informed from other quarters, Sacheuse's interpretation of the report of the natives implied only *two large stones*; a circumstance which certainly renders its meteoric origin extremely probable; and the subsequent detection of the ordinary proportion of nickel in its composition, by Dr. Wollaston, may be regarded as decisive of its real nature.

In these high latitudes, the *little auks*, or *rotges*, (*Alca alce*, Lin.) were observed in countless multitudes, preying on the same small cancers and beroes as the whale, and affording to the sailors a grateful supply of fresh food; especially when dressed in the form of soup, which was found to be not inferior to such as is made from the hare. With three muskets; not fewer than one thousand two hundred and sixty-three of these birds were killed in one day; and, of this number, ninety-three were brought down by one simultaneous discharge of the three muskets.

When in latitude $75^{\circ} 54'$, it was observed that the snow on the face of the cliffs was stained of a deep crimson colour; and, according to Captain Ross, the gentlemen who went on shore discovered that the colouring matter penetrated even to the rock, in many places to the depth of ten or twelve feet; while the Journalist positively asserts that it extended *not more than an inch or two*. It is difficult to reconcile such discrepancies with regard to simple matters of fact. With respect to the phænomenon itself, snow of a red colour is mentioned by some of the old chroniclers, and more pointedly within the present century by some of our scientific journalists, as having occurred on the Alps and Pyrénées, in Carniola, and in different parts of Italy: but the red tinge in the present instance appears to have been disposed in large patches, and not in regular layers; and the hue, if not exaggerated in the plate, is quite beautiful. Dr. Wollaston, after having examined some of the colouring matter, which was brought home, inclined, though with considerable hesitation, to the opinion that it is of a vegetable nature; and others, with less probability, supposed it to proceed from the dejections of birds. The analyses of the brick-red and rose-coloured snows of Italy have revealed red oxyd of iron, alumine, and silex; besides combustible matter, either of an animal or a vegetable nature. A quantity of the
the

the crimson snow was brought on board the *Isabella*, and examined by a microscope, magnifying 110 times.

'The substance,' according to the Captain, 'appeared to consist of particles like a very minute round seed, which were exactly of the same size, and of a deep red colour: on some of the particles a small dark speck was also seen. It was the general opinion of the officers who examined it by the microscope, that it must be vegetable, and this opinion seemed to gain strength by the nature of the places where it was found; these were the sides of the hills, about six hundred feet high, on the tops of which was seen vegetation of yellowish green and reddish brown colours. The extent of these cliffs was about eight miles; behind them at a considerable distance high mountains were seen, but the snow which covered these was not coloured;' &c.—'In the evening, I caused some of the snow to be dissolved, and bottled, when the water had the appearance of muddy port-wine; in a few hours it deposited a sediment, which was examined by the microscope; some of it was bruised, and found to be composed wholly of red matter; when applied to paper, it produced a colour nearest to Indian red. It was preserved in three states, viz. dissolved and bottled, the sediment bottled, and the sediment dried: these have been examined since our return to this country, and various opinions given concerning it, but Dr. Wollaston seems to concur in that which we originally had, of its being a vegetable substance, produced on the mountain immediately above it. It cannot be a marine production, as in several parts we saw it at least six miles from the sea, but always on the face or near the foot of a mountain.'

In the *Quarterly Journal of Literature, Science, and the Arts*, edited at the Royal Institution, (No. XIV. just published,) is a paper by Mr. Bauer, detailing his "Microscopical Observations on the Red Snow;" in which Mr. B. appears to have shewn that this substance is of a vegetable nature, belonging to the genus of fungi called *Uredo*; of which it deserves to be esteemed a new species, and, from its particular habit, to be termed the *Uredo nivalis*.

About six miles to the north of Cape Dudley Digges, a majestic glacier was remarked to occupy a space of four miles square; extending one mile into the sea, and rising to the height of at least one hundred feet.

Captain Ross closes his relation of a tedious and toilsome progress through six hundred miles of ice, with some general but striking and useful observations on the atmospheric phenomena which he had occasion to contemplate, and on the treatment of his men during this fatiguing and hazardous service.

'We were occasionally visted,' he says, 'by fogs, which were, in general, extremely thick, and of a very white appearance, while in the
zenith

zenith the blue sky was apparent. At this time, the thermometer is generally at the freezing point; the moment this fog touches the ropes of the ship it freezes, and these are, in a very short time, covered with ice, to the thickness of a man's arm, and at every evolution of the ship it covers the deck with its fragments. In the absence of these fogs, we had sometimes the atmosphere most beautifully clear; the objects on the horizon were often most wonderfully raised by the powers of refraction, while others, at a short distance from them, were as much sunk. The use of the dip-sector was totally suspended, as no satisfactory result could be obtained from it. These objects were continually varying in shape; the ice had sometimes the appearance of an immense wall on the horizon, with here and there a space resembling a breach in it; icebergs, and even small pieces of ice, had often the appearance of trees; and while, on one side, we had the resemblance of a forest near us, the pieces of ice, on the other side, were so greatly lengthened, as to look like long low islands.

We were often able to see land at an immense distance, and we have certain proof that the power of vision was extended beyond one hundred and fifty miles; I made many observations with my sextant on the phenomena just described, and often found the same object increase in its altitude half a degree in the course of a few minutes. The high rock off Cape Dudley Digges, was observed to increase in altitude from 2° to 5° within an hour; in the course of next half hour it decreased to the appearance of a speck on the water, and soon after it became like a long low island, in which state it remained for some hours, when it resumed its natural shape. While the moon was in sight, she had the appearance of following the sun round the horizon, and while these bodies were passing in azimuth along the tops of the mountains, the snow which covered them, and which had naturally a yellow tinge, had then the lustre of gold, and the reflection of these upon the sky produced a rich green tint so delicately beautiful as to surpass description. On the other hand, the rays of the sun darting over the tops of the mountains, came in contact with the icebergs, which appeared like as many edifices of silver, adorned with precious stones of every variety.

The rules and regulations, necessary to be attended to by the officers and crews of the expedition under my command, will be found at the conclusion of this narrative. It is, therefore, unnecessary for me to dwell on the subject of discipline, which is so essentially requisite, in order to preserve the health of the men. In the course of our tedious, and often laborious, progress through the ice, it became necessary to keep the whole of the crew at the most fatiguing work, sometimes for several days and nights without intermission. When this was the case, an extra meal was served to them at midnight, generally of preserved meat; and I found that this kind of nourishment, when the mind and body are both occupied, and aided, no doubt, by the continual presence of the sun, acted as a substitute for sleep, and they often passed three days in this manner without any visible inconvenience; after

a meal

a meal of this kind, they returned to their labour on the ice, tracking and warping, or in the boats towing, quite refreshed, and continued at it without a murmur. No doubt the exercise was a considerable preventive to scurvy, which was the complaint most to be feared. As long as the vegetables lasted, no lime-juice was served; when the men got wet, which often happened, they were made to shift their clothes and put on dry ones: caps of canvass, lined with flannel, were made for them; these were conical in shape, and made large enough to come over the shoulders, buttoning under the chin; they had the effect of keeping the neck and breast warm, and being painted on the outside also, turned the water off effectually; they were made use of in rainy, snowy, or foggy weather. With these precautions, and the men being all of good constitution, we never had a sick person, and when we arrived at this part of our voyage, no crews were ever in higher health or spirits.

In the subsequent progress of the voyage, the Captain seems to have occasionally peeped into Sounds, but to have somewhat hastily satisfied himself of the impracticability of a passage through them. We find him, however, exerting peculiar industry in bestrewing both land and water with the names of royal and public personages; among whom those of Scottish statesmen and functionaries obtain at least their due share of grateful commemoration. With respect to the land, so pointedly asserted to have been distinctly seen by Captain Ross, Lieutenant Robertson, and *other officers*, the Journalist expresses himself thus:

‘ During the remainder of the day, I passed the greater part of my time on deck, anxious to see whether the main land to the eastward, that is, the coast of Greenland, and that to the westward, joined; but this I had not, at any time, the good fortune to see, although from ten o’clock until midnight the weather was remarkably fine and clear. It is probable that the chasm, or open space, to the northward, where not any land could be traced *by me*, might be that which Baffin calls Sir Thomas Smith’s Sound; and if, agreeably to his relation, this is the “deepest and largest sound in all this bay,” it is not likely that we should have seen the bottom of it at such a distance, as we estimate that we are twenty leagues from the northern extreme of the west land visible.’ —

‘ Between eleven and twelve o’clock, P. M. we made sail to the southward, and abandoned the search for a passage in this quarter, from a thorough conviction, I should hope, that not any such passage exists here. I am perfectly satisfied myself that this is not the place to look for it, although I must confess that I did not see the continuity of land all around the top of this bay, if it may be so termed; and, in order to show that I am not the only person who has been unfortunate in this respect, I have inserted, in the Appendix, No. VI., an exact copy of the ship’s log for this day,

day, by which it does not appear that the land was seen all around at one time; neither, by a comparison of the bearings of the east land, and of the west, taken at different times, do they appear to meet.'

Nor, unfortunately, are these the only discordant statements which this expedition has elicited concerning the prospective discovery of a north-west passage. Yet, without exceeding all reasonable bounds, we cannot venture to lay before our readers the commander's anxious pleading in favour of his very abrupt dereliction of the search in Sir John Lancaster's Sound, the countervailing averments of some of his officers, and the inferences which competent judges are disposed to deduce from the jarring premises. We certainly cannot perceive that Capt. Ross has made out a triumphant case; nor, in the circumstances in which he was placed, can we deem it physically possible that he should have ascertained the continuous closing in of the land, beyond every suspicion of fallacy or error. At all events, we may be allowed to regret that, after the means had been so amply provided for attaining the ultimate object of inquiry, and after so much toil and peril had been encountered, the pursuit was abandoned precisely at the moment when the most sanguine hopes were entertained of success. The renewed expedition may, indeed, have already determined the points at issue: but wherefore have recourse to a second voyage, if the first might have fulfilled its destiny? Let us, however, dismiss these painful surmises with the mitigating reflections that, if Capt. Ross may have failed in accomplishing the main design of his mission, he has very considerably narrowed the field of future investigation, and abridged the labours and hazards of his successors; that he has verified the existence of Baffin's Inlet, if we must not yet call it *Bay*; and that he has presided over a series of observations, the results of which can be duly appreciated only by the votaries of nautical and physical science. The latter will, we are confident, abstain from any hasty conclusions, until they have carefully perused both the documents to which we have adverted; for the extracts from the log in the smaller publication afford important elements of comparison; and the chart annexed to it leaves the *debateable waters* open to examination, whereas that which is prefixed to the quarto volume sternly blocks them up with land.

In lat. $70^{\circ} 34\frac{1}{2}'$, a party was sent to make observations on a large detached iceberg, tenanted by a solitary white bear; which, perceiving no other means of escape, plunged into the sea from a height of about fifty feet, and disappeared. The

Journalist presumes that it was killed on the projecting ice at the bottom of the berg, and that it sunk in consequence: but he remarks that these animals are excellent divers, and that they must often rely on their powers of swimming, since they are observed on the ice at a great distance from land. Lieut. Parry reported this berg to be 4169 yards long, 3869 broad, and 51 feet high, aground in 61 fathoms. — In Capt. Ross's coloured view of this scene, the disproportioned drawing of the bear must strike every eye, whether accustomed to the arts of design or not.

In the course of exploring different parts of Davis's Straits, it was distinctly ascertained that James' Island, as laid down in the charts, has no existence; and that the land mistaken for it must have been *Cumberland*, of Davis.

The subsequent incidents, till the return of the expedition to Brassa Sound, with the exception of a tremendous gale of wind, which separated the two ships, (without materially injuring them,) are scarcely deserving of particular notice. The concluding sentence of the Captain's dispatches from Shetland to the Admiralty is the most comfortable in the whole range of his narrative. 'Not an instance of punishment has taken place in this ship, nor has there been an officer, or man, in the sick list; and it is with a feeling not to be expressed, that I have to conclude this letter by reporting that the service has been performed, and the expedition, I had the honour to command, has returned, without the loss of a man.'

At Shetland, the party were again welcomed and kindly treated by Mr. Mouat; and here they made various observations on the rate of their instruments, the dipping needle, &c. &c. On the 14th of November, the ships anchored in Grimsby Roads; and, on the 16th of the same month, Capt. Ross delivered all the sealed papers to the Admiralty.

The Appendix extends to 136 pages, and contains some valuable and not a few imperfect documents.

No. I., which treats of the variation of the compass, and the deviation of the magnetic needle, details the numerous experiments which were made in both ships; and it is particularly worthy of remark, that they are completely corroborative of the recent observations on the influence of the ferruginous attraction of the vessel, and of the unmanageable disposition of the needle in high northern latitudes: in consequence of which latter circumstance, the formula of correction proposed by Capt. Flinders is rendered inadequate as a general rule. It can now no longer be doubted that every ship has an individual attraction, the precise amount of

which is not easily ascertained, but which affects the compasses on board according to their station in the ship; and that the consequent deviation is moreover influenced by the ship's direction, by heat and cold, by the humidity and density of the atmosphere, by the direction of the wind, and by the dip of the needle: — but for the practical rules, deducible from the facts, we must refer to the original.

No. II. *Zoological Memoranda.* Being disappointed of any communications from Capt. Sabine relative to natural history, the author acknowledges his obligations to his Surgeon and Assistant Surgeon for supplying him with the present article; and to Dr. Leach, of the British Museum, for revising and correcting it.

Of the two specimens of Seal described, the first is unquestionably *Phoca barbata*; and the second, probably, the young of *P. hispida*. In both, the *foramen ovale* was observed to be obliterated; and we have reason to believe that multiplied dissections will confirm the fallacy of the common opinion that, in this family of animals, the opening in question remains unclosed. The other *mammalia* particularized are the Ermine, White Bear, a Hare, distinct from both the common white and the Alpine species, and the northern Whale. To this list the Journalist adds the Arctic Fox, and Pine Martin: but he classes the seal, narwhal, and the fin and common whale, under *Fishes*, without quoting a single genuine *fish*. The sledge-dog of the Arctic Highlanders, the description of which was reserved for the Appendix, is left to shift for itself: but it probably does not materially differ from that which is employed for the same purpose in Greenland and Kamtschatka. The catalogue of Birds is less numerous than we might have anticipated, and suggests no novelty of remark. The *Larus Sabini*, a supposed new species, is the *Larus collaris* of Schreibers. The list of invertebrate animals is also singularly meagre, though it presents us with several new species; as *Margarita Arctica*, *Natica Beverlii*, *N. fragilis*, *Modiola Arctica*, *Nicania striata*, *Lepidonotus Rossii*, and *Gammarus Sabini*.

No. III. *Geological Memoranda.* Dr. McCulloch has given names to the few insulated articles of this very famished document; in general, however, wisely refraining from such comments as could prove only conjectural.

On a detached iceberg were found specimens of granite, gneiss, and basalt. The samples from Waygat Island include granite, gneiss, quartz rock, greywacké slate, grey earthy amygdaloid, semi-opal, chalcedony, wood-coal, &c. The last mentioned is part of a tree, of considerable dimensions, found where no trees can at present vegetate, and of which the history

History of the formation is consequently attended with the same difficulty as that of the *surturbrand* of Iceland. A pitchstone amygdaloid, from Four Island Point, presents a singular variety. 'To describe its basis accurately, it may be compared to that of the *Squir of Egg*; adding only, that it occupies a station still nearer to true pitchstone; appearing to be as nearly intermediate between that substance and the rock in question, as this is between pitchstone and basalt. It is an interesting circumstance, as adding one more to the numerous analogies already existing between those rocks.'

The gneiss of the Three Islands of Baffin is remarkable for the very large quantities of garnets which it contains; and, also, for the minute scales of molybdena which are dispersed through its substance: forming, as it were, an integrant part of the mass. — With respect, however, to the general geology of the countries visited by our northern navigators, little can be safely inferred; except that they exhibit rocks of the primary and also of the secondary formation, the latter consisting of different members of the trap-series.

These memoranda are followed by a table of the soundings obtained in Davis's Strait and Baffin's Bay; Dr. Wollaston's remarks on the red coloured snow and meteoric iron; a copious list of latitudes and longitudes of places; an account of the going of seven chronometers, of the dip-sector, pendulum, compasses, &c.: with observations, by Lieut. Robertson, on the Aurora Borealis; which was seen in great splendor, late on the homeward passage, and which was not limited to the northern quarter of the heavens.

The *Deep-Sea-Clamms*, an instrument invented by Capt. Ross, and here described, appear to have been successfully employed in deep soundings; fetching up a quantity of materials from the bottom, and preserving them nearly in their native temperature till a thermometer could be applied. It is deserving of remark that the temperature of the sea, in Baffin's Bay, seems invariably to decrease with the depth; and that the self-registering thermometer, near Cape Walsingham, and at the depth of 660 fathoms, indicated $25\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of Fahrenheit. Another anomaly, which bespeaks our imperfect acquaintance with the doctrine of marine temperature, is that the officers attached to the polar expedition obtained results quite the reverse of those just stated. Perhaps, local and chemical affections exist, which have not hitherto entered into the elements of our reasoning on this *dark* and *profound* subject. Within the arctic circle, for the space of three months, the temperature of the atmosphere, in the shade, was never higher than 53° , nor lower than $26\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$: but the general average was between 35° and 37° .

The list of plants, which is far from numerous, has been drawn up by Mr. Brown; and the task could not have been intrusted to better hands. The new species are, *Agrostis paradoxa*, accompanied, however, with an expression of doubt as to its generic station; *Saxifraga propinqua*; *S. triflora*; *Potentilla pulchella*; *P. Groenlandica*?; *Draba oblongata*; *D. corymbosa*?; *Cochlearia fenestrata*; *Carex compacta*; *Salix Arctica*; *Dufurea? rugosa*; a suspected new species of *Usnea*; and the colouring matter of the red snow, presumed by Mr. Brown to be a plant somewhat resembling the more simple kinds of *Conferva*, or the bloody *Tremella*.

Having devoted so much of our space to the consideration of the accounts of this voyage of discovery, we have not left a spare corner for even a cursory analysis of the conflicting pamphlets of Captains Sabine and Ross: but, moreover, we feel reluctant to take part in a controversy which assumes too much of a personal complexion to fall under our appropriate cognizance. We very sincerely lament that any serious misunderstanding arose between gentlemen who held prominent stations in the expedition, and the cordial co-operation of whose exertions was likely to prove of such vital consequence to its beneficial results. Much unpleasant altercation might, we think, have been spared, had the commander interpreted his instructions, as far as they related to Capt. Sabine's proceedings, with less strictness and formality than they seem fairly to imply; and had Capt. Sabine in the spirit of conciliation and courtesy, and with a view to the interests of the undertaking in which he had volunteered his services, frankly communicated that information which it seems he chose to withhold.

* * Since the preceding article was written, we have seen a second edition of Captain Ross's Narrative, published by Messrs. Longman and Co. in 2 Vols. 8vo. price 1l. 1s. To the first volume is prefixed a new Chart of Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, somewhat altered from that which occurs in the 4to. edition, but preserving the questionable rounded bottom of the bay, with a completion of the line of coast. The second volume has an engraving exhibiting several of the philosophical instruments used on board of the ships, but we find no other plates. No mention is made of any alteration of the text: but, on comparing various passages, we observe so many differences that a general revision seems to have taken place; and the articles in the Appendix are otherwise arranged. In one of them, Capt. Ross alludes to and adopts Mr. Bauer's opinion that the red snow is the species of fungus which he terms *Uredo nivalis*.

ART:

ART. V. *Shakspeare and his Times* : including the Biography of the Poet; Criticisms on his Genius and Writings; a new Chronology of his Plays; a Disquisition on the Object of his Sonnets; and a History of the Manners, Customs, and Amusements, Superstitions, Poetry, and Elegant Literature of his Age. By Nathan Drake, M.D. 2 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

FOR a considerable number of years, Dr. Drake has been agreeably known to the English public by his "Literary Hours," and by his "Essays on Periodical Literature." His selection of topic has always been popular; his style is elegant, though citatory; his reading, if too vernacular, is comprehensive; his tone of commentary is mild and candid; and he is one of those writers for the drawing-room, who carefully avoid to deter female readers by any improper rashness or obscure depth of opinion, or illustration. He now first enters the historical career. At the beginning of our sixty-fifth volume, occurs an account, in many respects remarkable, of Black's Life of Tasso; and the present volumes form a work of the same kind, which might be introduced to our readers by a repetition of the same exordium. Both writers have endeavoured to make a celebrated poet's biography the vehicle for a picture of his age; both have indulged in prolixity; and both are in some danger of incurring the fate of Mr. Godwin's analogous book on the Life of Chaucer, of which a skilful abridgement would soon supplant the original.

Dr. D. has divided his volumes into three parts, intitled Shakspeare in Stratford, which occupies thirteen chapters; Shakspeare in London, which occupies twenty-three chapters; and Shakspeare in Retirement, which occupies two chapters. An Appendix comprizes a copy of his will. Each of these sections branches into such infinitesimal detail concerning the literature of the age, the manners of the people, or the history of the theatre, that we lose sight of the circumstances of the poet; and, like one of those wooden mannikins which serve to exhibit suits of antient armour, he is often scarcely to be perceived through the grate of the vizor, or the mail of the hauberk. The effect of the whole is like that of a clump of trees planted on a tumulus; they are shady and picturesque, but they tend to intercept the conjecture that this was the grave of a hero. Superfluities are easily indicated in the narrative, but deficiencies not so readily; and we shall therefore be on the watch for them.

The father of Shakspeare was by religion a Catholic, and by trade a woolstapler; and having been in 1569 high-bailiff of Stratford on the Avon, he must probably have been at one time in liberal circumstances. His wife bore him eleven children, of whom the two eldest were daughters; and William, the eldest son, was born on the 23d and baptized on the 26th of April 1564. He was educated at the free school, and was probably employed with the other boys to assist in the dramatic festivities given to Queen Elizabeth in 1575 at Kenelworth Castle.

In 1576, the youth was taken home to assist in his father's business, the progressive poverty of the family forming the real cause for withdrawing him so early from the fountain of learning; and it is thought that he was made to earn something as a teacher, and also by writing for an attorney. It is *possible* that the father was driven to open a butcher's shop: but, as he did not resign his seat in the corporation until 1586, such a circumstance is *improbable*; and consequently also the connected anecdote that William was a parading lad, who could not kill a calf without a speech. More probable is the other anecdote, that he belonged to a club of ale-drinkers, called the Bidford Topers; in concert with whom, perhaps, he was concerned in stealing deer from the park of Sir Thomas Lucy. As he had aggravated this offence by a satirical ballad on the proprietor, he was selected for prosecution, and in consequence fled from the paternal roof.

Whither did he fly?

On this question, we have no historic evidence amounting to adequate testimony. One rumour says that he went to London, and officiated at the theatre, as a link-boy. Perhaps he went to Bristol, and embarked in a Mediterranean trader for Venice, working his passage out and home. This, however, is a mere conjecture, for which we are answerable, not Dr. Drake: but it is a conjecture which various literary phenomena of the publications unite to support. We can detect parallelisms between Shakspeare's poem of *Adonis*, and Marini's *Adone*, which favour the suspicion that they are both copying some Italian epopea prior to either; and, though we are not prepared to prove that the *Rape of Lucrece* is derived from the Italian, many personifications in it appear to be unnatural in our language, while they obey the gender of the corresponding Italian substantive. Thus "Affection is my captain;" "Sin, he lean'd;" as if the masculine words *Affetto* and *Peccato* were in the author's mind; and the soul of Tarquin is called "a spotted princess," as if *Anima* had suggested the personification. In the

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combination "tyrant-folly," folly is used for madness, which is an Italianism. In many of the early plays, also, (that of *Romeo and Juliet*, according to Mr. Tyrwhitt, is one of the first, and written about 1591,) Shakespeare displays a considerable knowledge of the Italian language; and he must at least have learnt to fence of an Italian master, since the technical terms are accurately given in that tongue. His knowledge, moreover, has the appearance of being vernacular: as in the expression "the nimble-spirited *catsoes*," which has puzzled untravelled commentators, and in which an indecent Italian word, corresponding with the Latin *pubes*, has been metaphorically employed to describe the libertine youth, the adolescent vigour, of the country. Now this word, being somewhat gross in Italian, rarely occurs in book-language, and yet it is so common as an oath in conversation that every traveller picks it up immediately. In *Othello*, the Sagittary is quoted as an inn at Venice; the scene of the Moor's love is placed in a gondola*, a local peculiarity which Beppo corroborates; the title of *magnifico* is allotted with propriety; the names *Lucchese* and *Veronese* are scanned rightly, or at least after the Italian manner; the interjection *diavolo* is employed; the mandrake is called *mandragora*; the characters swear "by the mass;" and the whole story is taken from Cynthio Giraldi, whose novels were not translated into English when *Othello* was brought out. Similar illustrations of Shakespeare's Italian reading might be drawn from the *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, from *Much Ado about Nothing*, or from the *Merchant of Venice*, the fable of which again is derived from the untranslated *Pecorone*. In the *Lover's Complaint*, Shakespeare boasts of having wooed a nun; and there were no such persons in England. These indications may suffice to render an Italian voyage probable, which many passages in the *Tempest* corroborate, and to induce the conjectural biographer to date it before Shakespeare's marriage.

This marriage took place in 1582, the bard being then only eighteen, and his bride Anne Hathaway twenty-six years of age. Many illustrations of the courtship might have been drawn from the juvenile poems of Shakespeare.

"Well could he ride, and often men would say:
That horse his mettle from the rider takes."

Lover's Complaint.

* — "With no worse nor better guard,
But with a knave of common hire, a gondolier," &c.

Still more characteristic is the description in the same poem of his "subduing tongue," of his free manners, and of his general popularity. From the 128th sonnet, and from the sixth stanza of the *Passionate Pilgrim*, it appears that Anne Hathaway was fond of music, and played on the spinnet. The connection, however, could not be welcome to either family. Shakspeare's father was necessitous, and certainly did not want a daughter-in-law and young children to maintain. Mr. Hathaway was indeed a substantial yeoman; that is, he farmed land of his own: but he had three sons, and at least one other daughter. If he had occupied so much as a hundred acres of land, he would by courtesy have been called an Esquire; and, as a yeoman is circumstanced like an Esquire in this respect, that his property, being real and not personal, naturally descends entire to the eldest son, the younger children of yeomen have usually but scanty fortunes; so that the girls frequently go out to service, and the boys hire themselves to farmers. The Hathaways, then, on their side, could not deem a marriage desirable with a young man who had no regular business. Some imperious circumstance, therefore, united the lovers; and, as the oldest biographer says that they married "in order to settle after a family-manner," he may be thought to insinuate that the prospect of a family preceded the settlement. This is also indirectly implied in the concluding stanzas of a *Lover's Complaint*. In the supposed case, the register of Shakspeare's marriage will be found of later date than the month of August: for his eldest daughter was born in May 1583. In the following year, he had twins, which were baptized by the names of Hamnet and Judith.

Five entire chapters are here allotted to a View of Country-Life during the age of Shakspeare: but we pass by them at present to continue our biographical strictures; and the poet's history recommences with the tenth chapter. Dr. Drake places the deer-stealing at this period, and considers the prosecution by Sir Thomas Lucy as the cause of Shakspeare's leaving Stratford for London in 1586, or 1587. We feel inclined, as we have already stated, to place this incident earlier; for it is not very probable that a married man, and the father of several children, who was pursuing a maintenance as an attorney, who knew his risks and had need of character, should, for so casual a profit, concur in so illegal and degrading an occupation as that of a common poacher. The removal of the bard to London is sufficiently explained by the fact that John Heminge, a celebrated comedian of the time, was of the same parish with Shakspeare's wife, and

and that Burbadge and Greene, also distinguished actors, were Stratford men: for they, no doubt, would unite to attract their acquaintance and companion into the theatrical circle. As an actor, he is said by Greene to have been "*excellent in the qualitie he professes;*" and he performed many of the kingly parts in his own plays, together with the ghost in Hamlet, and Adam in *As you Like it*. He also undertook to alter many extant dramas: on which account Greene calls him *an upstart crow beautified with our feathers*; adding that he is *in his own conceit the only Shake-scene in the country*. As this commendation bears the date of 1592, Shakspeare must have been employed as a play-wright instantly on his arrival in London; and no doubt it was to the composition of *Venus and Adonis*, "the first heir of his invention," (which, though not published until 1593, was circulated in manuscript long before,) that he owed a reputation for poetic taste and power, which so rapidly stationed him high in his appropriate career. The first play, which he refitted for the stage, is here supposed to be *Pericles*, originally called *Pyrocles*; a second was the *Witch*, for, as several lines in that play, which is chiefly ascribed to Middleton, also occur in Macbeth, they were furnished, no doubt, not borrowed by Shakspeare; and a third was perhaps *Jane Shore*, to the final adaptation of which for the English stage Mr. Rowe has the enduring claim. All the plays in which Shakspeare assisted, such as the *Two Noble Kinsmen* of Fletcher, ought in some one edition to be brought together.

The works of Christopher Marlowe, moreover, deserve to be collected and edited apart. His *Edward the Second*, and his *Faustus*, which is indebted to a German play of Manlius, are master-pieces. He was especially the model and probably the friend of Shakspeare. Marlowe was avowedly addicted to a negative religion; and, from the impartiality, not to say moral indifference, with which Shakspeare portrays all the various forms of human conduct and opinion, together with the unsparing satire which he flings (in the *Puritan*) at the most religious sect of his own times, it may be presumed that he thought nearly with Marlowe. Both in *Macbeth* and the *Puritan*, with a profane levity which is indicative of any thing but faith, the last judgment is called "*general bonfire*," so that, to borrow his own words, "the community of learning had so played upon his affections, that by almost religion was come about to fantasy, and discredited." There is, however, something very enigmatic about Christopher Marlowe. Of his birth-place and early years, nothing is known: but, just at the time when Shakspeare
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left Stratford, he appears on the London boards as a distinguished actor, and an admirable play-wright both in tragedy and comedy. He was employed by the booksellers to correct the versification of various translations from the classics; and his contemporaries, according to the *Theatrum Poetarum*, discover in these poems a resemblance of that "clean style" which is peculiar to Shakspeare. Marlowe issued a pastofal ballad, intitled *The Passionate Shepherd*, which Shakspeare afterward claimed, and inserted in his own edition of *The Passionate Pilgrim*. Shortly afterward, in 1592, an improbable story was circulated, that Marlowe had been assassinated with his own sword, which attracted no judicial inquiry; and Shakspeare became immediately the same distinguished actor, the same admirable play-wright, that Marlowe had been just before. Can Christopher Marlowe have been a *nom de guerre* assumed for a time by Shakspeare? We know that actors often make their *début* under feigned names; and, if Shakspeare quitted home for any purpose of concealment, this policy was peculiarly natural. On what authority Warton educates Marlowe at Cambridge, we know not: but he certainly errs in saying that Marlowe was often applauded by King James the First, since the exit of Marlowe preceded by ten years the accession of that King. This much is certain, that, during the five years of the nominal existence of Marlowe, Shakspeare did not produce a single play, for Dr. Drake antedates the *Comedy of Errors* and *Love's Labour Lost*; and that, from the moment of Marlowe's nominal decease, he produced at least two annually.

We now come to that part of Shakspeare's literary career in which, under the title of *Sonnets*, he has given us a number of compositions, the merit and design of which have caused much diversity of opinion among his biographers, commentators, and editors. Dr. Drake differs entirely from Steevens with respect to their poetic merit, and agrees with others in concluding that the majority of them are in celebration of a male friend. He seems, indeed, to have thrown a new light on the object of this ardent poetical attachment, by ascertaining (see especially the fifth chapter of the second part of this work) that Thomas Wriothesley, the young Earl of Southampton, was the person to whom one hundred and twenty of these disputable sonnets are addressed. They amount in all to one hundred and fifty-four, of which the eightieth is inscribed to Queen Elizabeth, and about thirty of the concluding refer to the poet's wife or mistress. They are not arranged in an order strictly chronological, or
they

they would be a securer guide to the biographer. Young Wriothesley was born in 1573, lost his father in 1581, and was sent in 1585 to St. John's College, Cambridge, which was then conducted on the principle of a public school, and there took his degree of master of arts in 1589. In his seventeenth year, he quitted college, came to reside in London, entered himself as a student of the law at Gray's Inn, where he occupied chambers, and, as his mother had married again, found himself much his own master. This youth was as highly distinguished for intellectual accomplishment as for personal beauty; for courage, as for kindness; for politeness and liberality, as for rank and affluence; and was the nobleman of nature not less than of artificial society. Though not partial to music, (see the eighth sonnet,) he was passionately fond of the theatre, passed his evenings regularly there when Shakspeare played, and became his very intimate friend. So much of literary sympathy and joint intellectual pursuit embellished their companionship, that, if Christopher Marlowe be in fact a poetical name, it is to Wriothesley that the versions published under this signature must be ascribed primarily; and in this case a preface may, without falsehood, allude to the author having studied at Cambridge. From the sixteenth sonnet, it appears that a portrait existed of Wriothesley, painted during his minority: but the engraving, which decorates Mr. Malone's supplement, is taken from a painting of later date. Notwithstanding Shakspeare's natural loyalty, and disposition to flatter sovereigns, when Lord Southampton joined the rebellion of the Earl of Essex in 1603, and applied at the Globe theatre to get the deposition of Richard II. represented there, the bard not only complied, but wrote a new parliament-scene for the occasion; which proves that, even in a dangerous crisis, adherence to this English Alcibiades was the secret determination of his mind, although the scene itself is constructed to discourage the pending enterprize.

Mr. Steevens, in one of his notes, expresses a feeling of disgust at the tendency of many phrases in these sonnets, when considered as applied to a male friend: but Mr. Malone vindicates their use, by alleging the custom of the times. Dr. Drake also takes this ground, and at great length defends the bard against any imputations which might hence be cast on him. We should be very sorry to become the accusers in this case: but, if any such inference were drawn, the 23d, 35th, and 36th sonnets would probably be urged in its support. We quote some of Dr. D.'s observations.

' It will be necessary to show that, in the age of Shakspeare, the language of *love* and *friendship* was mutually convertible. The terms *lover* and *love*, indeed, were as often applied to those of the same sex who had an esteem for each other, as they are now exclusively directed to express the love of the male for the female. Thus, for instance, Ben Jonson subscribes himself the *lover* of Camden, and tells Dr. Donne, at the close of a letter to him, that he is his "ever true *lover*;" and with the same import, Drayton, in a letter to Drummond of Hawthornden, informs him, that Mr. Joseph Davis is in *love* with him. Shakspeare, in his *Dramas*, frequently adopts the same phraseology in expressing the relations of friendship: Portia, for example, in the *Merchant of Venice*, speaking of Antonio, says,

" this Antonio,
Being the bosom *lover* of my lord ;"

and in *Coriolanus*, Menenius exclaims,

" I tell thee, fellow,
Thy general is my *lover*." —

' That Shakspeare was, at the same time, attached by *friendship*, and by *love* ; that, according to the fashion of his age, he employed the same epithet for both, though, in one instance, at least, he has accurately distinguished the sexes, positively appears from the opening stanza of a sonnet in the *Passionate Pilgrim* of 1599 :

" Two loves I have of comfort and despair,
Which like two spirits do suggest me still ;
The *better angel* is a man right fair,
The worse spirit a *woman*, colour'd ill."

' That this *better angel* was Lord Southampton, and that to him was addressed the number of sonnets mentioned above, we shall now endeavour to substantiate.

' Perhaps one of the most striking proofs of this position, is the hitherto unnoticed fact, that the language of the *Dedication to the Rape of Lucrece*, and that of part of the *twenty-sixth sonnet*, are almost precisely the same.' —

' In his *prose*, then, as well as in his *verse*, our author uses the same *amatory* language; for he opens the dedication to His Lordship with the assurance that *his love for him is without end*. In correspondence with this declaration, the sonnet commences with this remarkable expression, — *Lord of my love* ; while the residue tells us, in exact conformity with the prose address, his high sense of His Lordship's merit and his own unworthiness.'

We decline to pursue the subject farther.

The chronological table of Shakspeare's plays is thus given by Dr. Drake :

1. Pericles,	-	1590.	4. King Henry VI.,	
2. Comedy of Errors,	1591.		Part I.	- 1592.
3. Love's Labour's			5. King Henry VI.,	
Lost,	-	1591.	Part II.	- 1592.
				6. Mid-

6. Midsummer-Night's Dream, - - - 1593.	20. As You Like It, - 1600.
7. Romeo and Juliet, 1593.	21. Merry Wives of Windsor, - - - 1601.
8. Taming of the Shrew, 1594.	22. Troilus and Cressida, 1601.
9. Two Gentlemen of Verona, - - - 1595.	23. King Henry VIII. - 1602.
10. King Richard III. - 1595.	24. Timon of Athens, - 1602.
11. King Richard II. - 1596.	25. Measure for Measure, - - - 1603.
12. King Henry IV., Part I. - - - 1596.	26. King Lear, - - - 1604.
13. King Henry IV., Part II. - - - 1596.	27. Cymbeline, - - - 1605.
14. The Merchant of Venice, - - - 1597.	28. Macbeth, - - - 1606.
15. Hamlet, - - - 1597.	29. Julius Cæsar, - - 1607.
16. King John - - - 1598.	30. Antony and Cleopatra, - - - 1608.
17. All's Well that Ends Well, - - - 1598.	31. Coriolanus, - - - 1609.
18. King Henry V. - 1599.	32. The Winter's Tale, - 1610.
19. Much Ado about Nothing, - - - 1599.	33. The Tempest, - - 1611.
	34. Othello, - - - 1612.
	35. Twelfth Night, - 1613.

In this list, we suspect that the *Comedy of Errors* has been placed prematurely; because the author must have had the use of Warner's translation of Plautus, which did not appear until 1595. *Love's Labour Lost* was not claimed by Shakspeare until 1598, which is the date of the first printed edition. In this piece he ridicules Florio, under the name of Holofernes; and, as the provocation of Florio seems to have consisted in the preface to his dictionary, which appeared in 1595, the play must be posterior to that date. We have no reason to wish for disturbing any other part of Dr. Drake's chronology, which in nothing else opposes our biographical theories; yet *Cymbeline* strikes us as a juvenile and unripe composition; and, from internal evidence, we should feel inclined to date it earlier.

With respect to the posthumous volume of plays, which was first given to the public in the folio edition of 1634, it is to be observed that one of the four persons concerned in the sale of the copy was named Hathaway, and a nephew probably of Shakspeare's widow. Hence the manuscripts may reasonably be supposed to have belonged to Shakspeare. Still, the manager of a theatre is not unlikely to possess plays offered by others, as well as plays written by himself; so that, unless we could compare the hand-writing of the several autographs, we must trust for the authenticity of the compositions partly to their internal evidence.

Pericles has been placed foremost in the collection, no doubt because the proof was most satisfactory of its being a genuine

genuine Shakspeare, to borrow the technical phrase of a sister-art; and we concur entirely with Dr. Drake in the opinion that it is so. *Locrine*, on the contrary, has no one symptom of genuineness: the style is formal, unvarying, simple, dull, euphonous, trivial, in all respects unlike that of Shakspeare; and the range of idea has an affectation of classicality which is not less dissonant from his habits of thinking. We agree, therefore, with Dr. Drake in rejecting it: but of the other pieces we entertain a better opinion than he has formed.

The very fine tragic drama, intitled *Sir John Oldcastle*, has been shamefully undervalued by Mr. Steevens in his rash note. This play we should pronounce to be a *Shakspeare all over*, and one of the best in the whole collection. If the son of Sir Richard Lee had been placed in office under the Bishop of Rochester, so as to have connected his assassination with the feud between the Lollards and the Catholics, little would have been wanting to the unity, wholeness, and ascending interest of the piece. It displays, both in the prose and the verse, all the peculiarities of Shakspeare's style, and all the intuition of his genius: which here, as in *Hamlet*, and as in *Richard the Second*, has delighted to exhibit little men struggling with great events, and has found a new source of pity in the incompetency of worth, in the distress of virtuous and well-meaning persons, who suffer merely from being not equal to their unsought circumstances. Although this be one of the forms of human misery most common among the men of rank whom history names, yet Shakspeare is the only poet who has ventured to paint it. He alone has dared to take heroes without heroism, and can still render their misfortunes interesting and instructive. Historic tragedy, (of which Shakspeare was the inventor,) that is, the faithful narration of events in a dramatic form, necessarily condemns the poet to this difficulty: but it is well overcome in *Sir John Oldcastle*, which contains as various and admirable a picture of English manners as the two parts of *Henry IV.* The scene in the wood near St. Alban's, where Lord and Lady Cobham have fled, is truly natural and pathetic: but the catastrophe wants dignity and object. This play was certainly acted in March 1599 by Shakspeare's company, and at the Lord Chamberlain's house; and indubitably it would have come on the public stage, had not Queen Elizabeth's ministers taken alarm at the anti-episcopal tendency of the delineation of the Bishop of Rochester. The prologue alludes to and claims that original first part of *Henry IV.*, in which Shakspeare had drawn *Sir John Falstaff* under the name of *Oldcastle*, and informs the audience that a different *Oldcastle* is now before them.

This is little short of demonstration that the same person wrote both plays.

The next tragedy, of *Thomas Lord Cromwell*, cannot be so highly commended as a work of poetic force or art. Yet the style and manner closely resemble those of Shakspeare; the characters are various, and strictly individual; and an uniform spirit of humanity pervades the dialogue. This is perhaps the best attempt to dramatize an entire biography that is extant in our language. One sentence in the play has been quoted as the writing of Shakspeare by an author who published in 1600. As Homer sometimes slumbers, so may Shakspeare; and surely it is not easy to conceive that two distinct poets, both intent on painting the reign of Henry VIII., should, without countenance from history, coincide in attributing to the Bishop of Winchester such identical perfidy of character. The first Earl of Southampton, however, having oppressed Gardiner, the Wriothesleys may have wished him to be run down; and hence possibly our poet's prejudice.

The *London Prodigal* does little honour to its author; and nothing but the weighty circumstance that it was printed in 1605, with Shakspeare's name in the title-page, can authorize the ascription of it to him. The *Puritan* is a superior composition: it is lively, though extravagant; and in many places it recalls the *Faustus* of Marlowe: but it is not stamped with a prominent resemblance to the acknowledged works of Shakspeare. The *Yorkshire Tragedy* has every mark, internal and external, of genuineness; and we see not the slightest improbability that, while the fact was recent, and an object of national attention, Shakspeare should thus have brought it on the stage:—it is a composition hastily written, but truly pathetic.

On the whole, we deem the posthumous plays in the main genuine. *Lochrine* alone can be confidently dismissed. The *London Prodigal* and the *Puritan* may be unsuccessful abortions of a too fertile muse, or works of his brother Edmond, the player: but *Pericles*, *Sir John Oldcastle*, *Lord Cromwell*, and the *Yorkshire Tragedy*, are all productions impressed with the seal of genius, and with the device of Shakspeare, honourable to his own reputation, and useful studies for succeeding artists. If Dr. Drake has in view a new and complete edition of the poems and plays of our great national classic, chronologically arranged, critically corrected, illustratively annotated, and biographically prefaced, we exhort him to adopt a more comprehensive list. We also advise the omission of Pope's and Johnson's prefaces, which are properly preserved among their respective works, but do not display
that

that higher point of view, as to Shakspeare, which modern criticism has attained.

In the fourteenth chapter, Dr. Drake returns to his biography, and makes some use of the sonnets, and much of Mr. Malone's collections from contemporary literature. With this latter part of the narrative we are well satisfied, and see little or nothing to vary by conjecture, or to supply by research. The filial piety of Shakspeare may be inferred from this circumstance, that in 1599 his father obtained from the herald's office a confirmation of his coat of arms: because, as the old gentleman had from poverty resigned his seat in the Stratford corporation so long before as in 1586, Shakspeare, who was growing rich, must have improved his father's condition to render this resumption of armorial bearings proper. We will make an extract from this chapter, to evince the comprehensive inquiry and display the lively narration of Dr. Drake:

‘ That Shakspeare was accustomed to visit Stratford annually, has been already noticed; and we learn from Antony Wood, that in performing these journeys, he used to bait at the Crown-Inn, in Oxford, which was then kept by John Davenant, the father of the poet. Antony represents Mrs. Davenant as both beautiful and accomplished, and her husband as a lover of plays, and a great admirer of Shakspeare. The frequent visits of the bard, and the charms of his landlady, appear to have given birth to some scandalous surmises; for Oldys, repeating Wood's story, adds, on the authority of Betterton and Pope, that “their son, young Will. Davenant, (afterwards Sir William,) was then a little school-boy in the town, of about seven or eight years old, and so fond also of Shakspeare, that whenever he heard of his arrival, he would fly from school to see him. One day, an old townsman observing the boy running homeward almost out of breath, asked him whither he was posting in that heat and hurry. He answered, to see his god-father Shakspeare. There's a good boy, said the other, but have a care that you don't take *God's* name in vain.” It has also been said, that Sir William had the weakness to feel gratified by the publicity of the supposition.

‘ It is very probable that, in 1600, Shakspeare might so time his annual visit to Stratford, as to be present at the christening of his nephew, William Hart, his sister's eldest son; who, according to the Register, was baptized on the 28th of the August of this year, and who, together with his two brothers Thomas and Michael, is remembered in the poet's will, by a legacy of five pounds.

‘ The subsequent year exhibits our bard in great favour at court. The Queen had been delighted with the *Two Parts of Henry the Fourth*, and honoured their author with a command to bring forward Falstaff in another play. Tradition says, this was executed in a fortnight, and afforded Her Majesty the most entire

satisfaction. The approbation and encouragement, indeed, of the two sovereigns under whose reigns he flourished, was a subject of contemporary notoriety; for Jonson, in his celebrated eulogy, thus apostrophises his departed friend:—

“ Sweet swan of Avon, what a sight it were,
To see thee in our waters yet appear:
And make those flights upon the banks of Thames,
That so did take *Eliza*, and our *James*.”

‘ That Elizabeth “gave him many gracious marks of her favour,” has been mentioned by Rowe as a matter of no doubt; and he elsewhere observes, that “what grace soever the Queen conferred upon him, it was not to *her* only he owed the *fortune* which the reputation of his wit made;” an observation which ushers in the acknowledgment of Southampton’s well-known generosity.

‘ The pleasure arising from this tide of success must have been, in no slight degree, damped by the sorrow which a son so truly great and good, must have felt on the loss of his father. This worthy man, of whom, in the opening of our work, some account will be found, expired on the 8th of September, 1601, leaving a name immortalised by the celebrity of his offspring.

‘ In 1602, no other trace of our author is discoverable, independent of his literary exertions, than that, on the 1st day of May, he purchased, in the town and parish of Stratford, one hundred and seven acres of land, for the sum of 320*l.*, which lands appear to have been indissolubly connected with his former purchase of New Place, and to have descended with it, until the extinction of the latter by Mr. Gastrell.

‘ The year following, however, brought an accession of dignity and power; for no sooner had James gotten possession of the English throne, than he granted a licence to the company at the Globe, which bears date the 19th of May, 1603, and being entitled “Pro Laurentio Fletcher et Willielmo Shakspeare et aliis,” gives us reason to conclude, that the persons thus distinguished were, if not joint managers, at least leaders in the concern.

‘ It was about this period also that Shakspeare may, upon good grounds, be supposed to have taken his farewell of the stage *as an actor*; relinquishing this profession, of which he appears not to have been very fond, for the purpose of more closely superintending the general concerns of the theatre, of which his writings continued to be the chief support. One strong motive for this deduction has arisen from the circumstance, that his name, as a performer, is nowhere visible beyond the era of Jonson’s *Sejanus*, in which play, first acted in 1603, it is found in the list of the principal comedians, while in *The Fox*, published only two years afterwards, performed at the same theatre, and by the same company, he is not mentioned, though the list of players is, as usual, inserted. That the term *fellow*, which continued to be mutually used by Shakspeare and the comedians of the Globe, cannot indicate a

wish that the thirteenth chapter had been still fuller; and we almost suspect that the length of his luxurious task, like the third course of a corporation-dinner, was beginning to fatigue the satiated curiosity of Dr. Drake. — Fletcher, Massinger, Ford, Webster, Middleton, Decker, Heywood, Chapman, Rowley, Taylor, Tomkins, Tourneur, and Jonson, pass in rapid and somewhat anachronic succession before the reader, and are severally criticized. We do not see for what reason Massinger is mentioned, since no one play by him had appeared in 1616, when Shakspeare died; — and on what account Lily, Fulk Greville, Day, Goff, &c. have been omitted, of whose works Shakspeare had superintended the representation, we are also at a loss to perceive. If, however, the marks of human weariness may be occasionally discerned, in general we observe much alacrity of toil, and much assemblage of instruction: no department of the patriotic antiquary has been wholly neglected; and a tasteful preference is given to all that most concerns the illustration of Shakspeare. The aggregate information, scattered in the “thousand and one” notes of the variorum editions, is here, in one place or shape or another, brought together, and classed under its proper head: so that, for those who possess copies of Shakspeare without notes, these volumes will form a welcome and sufficient supplement. Strictly proportioned, perhaps, the several parts are not: but in a new edition, which cannot fail one day to become requisite, the earlier chapters will naturally undergo something of abridgement, and the latter something of expansion; and Dr. Drake will eventually, we doubt not, give every perfection of which it is capable to his vast but not final mausoleum of Shakspeare.

ART. VI. Mr. Walpole's *Memoirs relating to European and Asiatic Turkey.*

[Article concluded from p. 272.]

AGREEABLY to the promise made in our preceding Number, we resume our account of Mr. Walpole's collection of papers on the dominions of the Turk. The late Colonel Squire's *Remarks relating to the Military Architecture of Antient Greece* come next in succession to the journals of Mr. Raikes, with which we concluded our former article; and his object has been to trace the progress of military architecture among the antient Greeks from the vestiges which now remain, from the wall of huge irregular masses, as they were taken from the quarry, to that magnificent style

of building, where the stones, placed without cement in horizontal courses, have a rectangular form, and are so adapted to each other as to present an uniform and consolidated structure.'

The first of these modes of building is not unfrequently called the Cyclopiian, a poetical rather than an accurate definition: while by others it is styled the Pelasgic, from a reference to its remote antiquity. Tiryns and Mycenæ present the most remarkable instances of it. The Homeric epithet *τειχιόεσσα*, applied to the former, seems, according to the Colonel, to have been selected with good reason, since he found the thickness of the walls to be not less than twenty-seven feet. An old French traveller speaks of the same as extending to twenty-one feet: but the French foot-measure exceeds ours, and the difference consequently is not considerable.

The latter style, mentioned by the Colonel, was the perfection of Grecian architecture in that branch, and by no means confined to military structures, as some of the most splendid remains in Greece now testify. — During the course of his observations, Col. S. discovered two intermediate classes of building, each advancing in improvement on the one preceding it. In the first of them, stones of irregular size and figure were used, but grooved and adapted to each other with much nicety: in the second, the stones were placed in horizontal courses, 'but occasionally by descending below, or by ascending above the line, they were deficient in regularity. The joints sometimes at an angle with the horizon, sometimes perpendicular.'

In none of these four progressive modes was any cement used: but we are not informed how far the interior of the walls corresponded in its workmanship to the two exterior, or whether it was more loosely composed, and of more irregular masses. Mr. Walpole, in some notes on these papers, alludes to the iron cramps used at the Piræus by Themistocles; and to similar fastenings made of wood, which were discovered by the French in some of the Egyptian buildings: whence he is led to the following remark, illustrative of a passage in Scripture:

'The Greeks, as we learn from Jerome, expressed this mode of binding stones together by the word *ιμάντωσις*. In the prophet Habakkuk, ii. 11. the Hebrew term bearing a similar meaning is *Caphis*, and the passage of the original is rendered by Symmachus, *σύνδεσμος οικοδομῆς ξύλων*, *Hieronym.* Opp. T. iii. 1610. [In the *Σοφία Σίραχ*, xxii. v. 16. we find *ιμάντωσις ξύλων ἰσχυρομένη* &c. *οικοδομῆν*, which is rendered by Coverdale, in the first Bible printed in English, "Like as the bond of wood bound together in the foundation of an house." — Ed.]

This is by no means the only or the most important instance, in which the Editor has applied his learning, and his knowledge of the customs both antient and modern in the nations bordering on the Levant, to the elucidation of Holy Writ. Indeed, the recurrence of such observations is frequent, and the remarks are generally striking and interesting. We may also take this opportunity of speaking of his notes and illustrative remarks on the travels of others generally: they are of a very high class, derived from various sources and very extensive reading; and they prove that every subject, which he has brought into public view in the character of an editor, he has himself privately investigated, and has cast much additional light on it.

Extracts of a Letter received by the Editor from M. S. Lusieri, relative to some Vases and Ornaments found by him in some Tombs near Athens.—When the well known M. Lusieri made several excavations in the vicinity of Athens, the tombs which he discovered were generally disposed from east to west, but not uniformly. The depth of them also varied, some being as deep as forty feet. Urns and vases were discovered in some, and in others the miners were disappointed. He also met with the figures of different animals, executed in a small size, in terra-cotta; placed in these tombs by the relatives of the dead, we presume, on the principle of

— “ *quæ gratia currûm
Armorumque fuit vivis, quæ cura nitentes
Pascere equos, eadem sequitur tellure repôstos.* ”

To this letter succeeds another from M. Fauvel, communicated by Dr. Hunt, relative to the opening of a tomb between Athens and the Piræus. The tumulus was between the old *μαθηρα τειχη*, and was similar in form to those which have been observed on the coast of the Troad. Various sepulchral remains were found in the interior, although little remarkable for their execution: but the discovery of the funeral pile, in the state in which it became extinct, is the most curious part of the account. A layer of the soil containing three large pieces of the charcoal of the wood of the olive, bones altogether reduced to ashes and others half-consumed, mixed with the fragments of vases, patellæ, amphoræ, &c. are in the possession of M. Fauvel. *

* The two representations of *ληκυδοι*, or antient painted vases, one placed opposite to this and the other to the preceding letter, are not figures of any such vessels described in the respective papers. The engravings were probably introduced to illustrate the mode of colouring, as the subjects have no reference to any descriptions in the text.

The Plain of Marathon, from the Papers of Colonel Squire.

— The Colonel, after having described the plain of Marathon, which he illustrates with a map, draws out the line of battle between the Greeks and the Persians under Mardonius, from the most approved antient authorities: but his description embraces little that is not known, or may be known, from the same sources. This sketch is succeeded by remarks on other parts of Greece, from the same pen; comprizing, apparently, a very accurate chorographic description, and, if so, an inestimable traveller's guide: although, from the compressed mode of writing, it is less interesting to the general reader. As we might presume from this deceased author's professional pursuits, he surveys the country with a military eye; discussing, and generally approving, the measures and dispositions of the Greeks at the momentous period of Persian invasion. Uniting the characters of the soldier and the scholar in an interesting degree, Colonel Squire moved forwards with his Herodotus as the "*sarcina belli*," and "shewed how fields were won."

Observations relating to some of the Antiquities of Egypt, from the Journals of the late Mr. Davison. — We believe that this gentleman was the British consul at Nice, and visited Egypt in company with some Frenchmen a few years antecedently to the expedition of Bruce. His authority is cited by this latter traveller, in the very jejune account which he himself gives of his own visit to the pyramids; (vol. i. p. 41.) and Bruce also attributes to Mr. Davison, in the same place, the first discovery of the chamber in the great pyramid, immediately above that which contains the sarcophagus, on which subject we shall speak presently.

No traveller ever took greater pains to obtain an accurate admeasurement of the pyramids, than the gentleman whose journals are now before us. His survey of the great pyramid of Giza varies but little from that which was taken by some members of the French Institute; and, as he preserved a regular table and scale of his process, every person may ascertain the accuracy of the result given. According to it, the height is 460 feet 11 inches: the base is computed at 746 feet. The top consists of six stones irregularly disposed, and 206 tiers of stone form the whole height of the pyramid. The annexed passage will explain the subject better than we can:

' As the square of every tier is less than the one below it, the space of two or three feet which is left on all sides by each of them as they diminish towards the top, forms what is generally called the steps. They are of different dimensions, as may be

seen on a preceding paper where the height of each is separately marked. It was thought proper, by means of a level and measure, to take the height of the steps one by one from the bottom to the top, a tedious, though the most certain and satisfactory method of having the exact perpendicular height of the whole, which agrees also with that taken by the Theodolite. — The entrance is upon the sixteenth step, on the side facing the north. It is not in the middle, as is generally imagined; being only 350 feet distant from the N. E. corner, whereas it is 396 feet from the N. W. corner.*

In a letter written in French from Cairo to a M. Varsy, Mr. Davison gives an account of his descent into the pit or well of the great pyramid, of which Pliny said, (lib. xxxvi. c. 16.) “*In pyramide maximâ est intus puteus octoginta sex cubitorum, flumen illo admissum arbitrantur.*” Mr. D. explored this well, having a rope tied round the middle of his body, and also assisting himself by the lateral projections, to the depth of 153 feet, until he found it encumbered with stones, sand, and other obstructions which prevented all farther progress. The descent was not always perpendicular, but sometimes in a sloping direction; insomuch that the light, which he lowered before him, was occasionally invisible from the place which he himself temporarily occupied. It is curious that the depth, to which he descended, considerably exceeds the measure given by Pliny as the extreme depth of the whole; and the circumstance would lead to the belief that it never had been so far explored in that writer's time, as it was now by the British traveller. The ridiculous fears of the Arabs who accompanied the writer of this letter, one only of whom could be induced to descend, and the relations which they gave of former misadventures, — some magnified, and others originating in credulity, — form the bulk of the letter.*

We will now advert to the chamber, to which Mr. Davison first made his way through the rubbish, dust, and bats' dung, that obstructed the passage to it. This room has never yet been explored, says the editor, by any subsequent traveller; and our recollection certainly does not supply us with any recent mention of it, although, among the multiplicity of

* Lord Valentia appears to have been ignorant of Mr. Davison's descent, and speaks only of a similar attempt made by order of Bonaparte, in which the explorer perished in the trial. This story, however, rests on doubtful authority, and so closely resembles some of those to which Mr. Davison alludes as current in his time, that it looks like an old tale with new characters introduced.

modern visitors of Egypt, whose works we have not immediately at hand, we should have looked with some confidence for such an examination. Mr. Walpole has doubtless ascertained the point accurately; and, if this be the only account of this chamber, Mr. Davison's papers, though now comparatively old (1762), are neither out of date nor out of place in the present collection. Bruce seems to imply that he entered it himself, for he speaks of Mr. Davison having left the ladders which he used, for the satisfaction of future travellers; and he adds that the chamber was not worthy of notice, except as having escaped the observation of former investigators. Mr. Davison writes:

' My surprise was great, when I reached it, to find to the right a straight entrance into a long, broad, but low place, which I knew, as well by the length as the direction of the passage I had entered at, to be immediately above the large room. The stones of granite, which are at the top of the latter, form the bottom of this, but are uneven, being of unequal thickness. This room is four feet longer than the one below; in the latter, you see only seven stones, and a half of one, on each side of them; but in that above, the nine are entire, the two halves resting on the wall at each end. The breadth is equal with that of the room below. The covering of this, as of the other, is of beautiful granite; but it is composed of eight stones instead of nine, the number in the room below.'

This coincides with what Bruce says: but he might have learnt it with more facility from conversation with Mr. Davison, whom he visited at Nice, than from any personal inspection, of which he certainly gives no traces.

To the extract from Mr. Davison's journal is appended a correspondence between him and the late Professor White of Oxford, respecting the hieroglyphical figures said to exist on the two great pyramids by Abdallatif, an Arabic writer. Mr. Davison ascertained that no such inscriptions remained in his time: but, as the outer covering of both had been removed, he could not say that they never did exist. On this subject, the editor has favoured us with the following curious note:

' Other Arabic writers prior to Abdallatif have also mentioned the hieroglyphics on the pyramids; their testimonies are cited by de Sacy in his translation of Abdallatif, 221. The Arabic writers do not express themselves in a manner sufficiently clear, so as to inform us, whether they mean that the characters were hieroglyphical or alphabetical. We find in Herodotus a reference to the inscription engraved on the pyramid of Cheops; it was, he says, in *Egyptian* characters; but still it is doubtful, whether by these words he means *ordinary* characters or hieroglyphics. The former

former acceptation is approved by Larcher; and Dr. Hales thinks these characters could not be any other than *literal* or alphabetical, Chron. i. 381. Ebn Haukal speaks of the *Syrian* and *Greek* inscriptions which covered some part of the pyramids; the former, Quatremère supposes, were letters in the cursive characters of Egypt, of which the Rosetta stone affords a singular example. The testimony respecting the Greek characters may be confirmed by Seif-ed-doulah-ben-Hamdan a geographer; the inscriptions were probably written by Greeks who visited these monuments, and recorded their names and the date of their visit. On one of the pyramids Latin verses had been inscribed; they were observed by Boldensleve who travelled in 1336; three of them may be here subjoined.

‘ *Vidi pyramidas sine te, dulcissime frater,
Et tibi, quod potui, lacrymas hic mæsta profudi,
Et nostri memorem luctus hic sculpo querelam.*’

We regret that we are compelled to omit all notice of Mr. Davison’s visit to the catacombs of Alexandria, which afford much curious matter.

Remarks on the Manners and Customs of the modern Inhabitants of Egypt, from the Journals of Dr. Hume.— This traveller visited Egypt in 1801, or soon afterward, accompanying our army in a medical capacity. We select the ensuing passage from his remarks, not as altogether new, but as more novel perhaps than any one insulated anecdote might be:

‘ There is a tribe of civilized Arabs in Egypt, who pretend that they are respected by serpents, and that no sort of snake can hurt them. As a proof of this, there is an annual procession of the tribe through the streets of Rosetta, of which I was a witness; one of their number is obliged to eat a living snake in public, or so much of it as to occasion its death. Probably the snake may have been rendered harmless by some means; the people, however, suppose that for some act of piety performed by the ancestors of this tribe or family (which is by no means numerous), the Prophet protects the descendants from any injury which the snakes might occasion. The ophiophagus, who is to keep up this ridiculous farce, being no doubt well paid, begins to eat the living reptile; a pretty large snake is held in his hands, which writhes its folds around his naked arm, as he bites at the head and body. Horror and fury are depicted in the man’s countenance, and in a strong convulsive manner he puts the animal to death by eating and swallowing part of it alive. This disgusting and horrible spectacle, however, is but seldom exhibited at present.’ *

* The editor cites Psalm lviii. 5. and Ecclesiastes, x. 11. in proof of the antiquity of serpent-charmers in the East, and manifests from Ecclesiasticus xii. 13. that the art was not always practised with impunity.

Journal of a Voyage up the Nile between Philæ and Ibrim in Nubia, in May 1814. By Capt. Light. — Great changes, this writer informs us, have taken place in the parts of Nubia which he visited, since the time of Norden, who travelled there in 1738. The difficulties which Capt. L. experienced were not equal to those that Norden encountered; and he was prevented from extending his researches rather by excessive heat and fatigue, than by any circumstance in the state of the country which might obstruct a traveller.* Many places mentioned by Norden are said to exist no longer, 'and perhaps lie overwhelmed with sand.' To the remarks of Mr. Legh, and his companion Mr. Smelt, which are still fresh in the recollection of our readers, the present journal affords a valuable addition. Speaking of the modern inhabitants of the tract which he traversed, about one hundred and fifty miles by land, and perhaps two hundred by water, Capt. L. observes that they appear to be a distinct race from those of the northern districts: their colour was black: but, as he advanced to the south from Cairo, he found the alteration of complexion gradual rather than sudden. Their countenance approached to that of the negro; 'thick lips, flattish nose and head; the body short, and bones slender.' The hair was curled and black, but not woolly. He remarked variations in appearance and complexion among the natives themselves, which led him to assume a double source of population: those of lighter cast he presumed to have arisen from intermarriages with the Arabs. Bruce speaks of some "miserable kennoufs," whom he saw near Assouan, in a similar manner. "They are not black, but of the darkest brown; are not woolly-headed, but have hair." Captain Light found that the Arabic which he had acquired from teachers was but of little use in Egypt, and in Nubia of none whatever; not even the dialect of the lower Nile would serve for intercourse, except in those parts in which the complexion of the natives was of a lighter hue: a circumstance that corroborated his idea of the origin of that part of the population. 'The Nubian when spoken reminded him of the clucking of the Hottentots: it seemed a succession of monosyllables, accompanied by a rise and fall in the voice, not disagreeable.' The editor cites an illustration of this remark from Leo Africanus: — "Beyond Assouan are villages peopled by men of a black colour, whose language is a mixture of Arabic, Egyptian, and Æthiopian." It seems probable that some remains of Greek

* Bruce appears to have been deterred from an expedition to Ibrim by the accounts of the Danish writer.

must still exist, although pronunciation may render it very difficult to be traced; for, according to some authors quoted by Mr. Walpole, the inhabitants of Upper Egypt had a perfect acquaintance with Greek as late as the beginning of the fifteenth century. The liturgy and prayers of the Nubians, when Christianity existed among them, are stated on the authority of an Arabian writer to have been composed in that language. — Captain Light met with no hippopotami on this part of the Nile, but crocodiles abounded. Mr. Browne, who never saw the former animal in Egypt, had heard that it was common in Nubia.

The Mines of Laurium. — Gold and Silver Coinage of the Athenians. — Revenue of Attica. By the Editor, and the Earl of Aberdeen. — This paper contains a dissertation, conducted with considerable learning and research, on the three separate topics enumerated in the title, each of which is discussed in its proper order. We were stopped, however, on the threshold by the citation of an authority which did not appear to us sufficiently to corroborate the hypothesis of the writers. 'The Athenians,' say they, 'had obtained silver from the mines of Laurium, as early as the time of Pisistratus, or 561. B. C. ;' in support of which position they cite Herodotus, Clio, 24. Now the passage in Herodotus, to which allusion is made, runs thus: 'Οὐλὰ δὴ Πεισίστρατος τοτρίῳν σχῶν Ἀθήνας, ἐβρίξωσεν τὴν τυραννίδα, ἐπικέροισι τὲ πολλοῖσι, καὶ χρημάτων συνόδοισι· τῶν μὲν, αὐλόθεν, τῶν δὲ, ἀπὸ Στρυμόνος ποταμοῦ συνιόντων. The testimony is clearly to be elicited from the word αὐλόθεν, and we were at first inclined to think that the passage was pressed a little too closely in order to supply it: but, when we remember that the supplies procured from the Strymon were clearly derived from those mines, which were in after times the source of wealth to the Macedonian kings, we can have no hesitation in applying the word αὐλόθεν to the native mines of Attica; and we consider the observation on the passage to be as ingenious as it is strongly grounded. In the age of Socrates, it appears, on the authority of Xenophon, that the ore had become scarce*; though whether from the exhaustion of the mine or from a want of skill in the miners we cannot determine: but that much must be attributed to the latter cause is clear, as well from antient authors as from the evidence which Lord Aberdeen and his co-adjutor have collected on this head.

* The editor cites the *Memorab.* lib.iii. c. 6. § 5.: but a more satisfactory testimony occurs in the twelfth section of the same chapter.

Thucydides says nothing of such a failure in his days, when he mentions the *Λαυρία ὅρος ἡ τὰ ἀργύρεα μέταλλα ἔστιν Ἀθηναίοις*. From the time of the Roman conquest of Greece, little can be traced respecting them. We learn from Diodorus * that they were worked in the year 135 B. C.; and if the thousand slaves, who are mentioned by him to have revolted in Attica, were in any large proportion employed in these mines, we might presume the product to have been considerable: but for this we have no sufficient authority. It should seem from Strabo, as here cited, that they were neglected in the time of Augustus. Pausanias speaks of them as mines which once had existed; and Plutarch, when writing on the appearance and disappearance of the phænomena which surround us, exemplifies the latter by the case of the Laurian mines. — The site and present aspect of the ground may be collected from the subsequent passage:

‘The district of Laurium, according to Stuart, appears to have reached from Rafti near the ancient Prasie to Legrena; part of this tract, he says, is called *Λαυριον ὅρος*, and is full of exhausted mines and scorie. When Mr. Hawkins was on his voyage to the Euripus, he was detained by the Etesian winds many days on the coast of Attica, and was enabled to take during that time an accurate examination of the mining district. The result of this mineralogical survey was, the discovery of many of the veins of argentiferous lead ore, with which that part of the country seems to abound; he observed the traces of the silver-mines not far beyond Keratia. In a paper belonging to the late Mr. Tweddell, relating to Attica, we find mention made of “*Les Ateliers des Mines*,” by these Mr. Hawkins says, the site of the smelting-furnaces is indicated, which may be traced to the southward of Thorico for some miles; immense quantities of scorie occurring there. The mines were situated much higher along the central ridge of hills; the smelting operations were probably carried on near the sea-coast for the convenience of fuel, which it soon became necessary to import.’

The second point of inquiry was ‘the gold and silver coinage of Attica.’ The authors allow that the fact of a coinage of money by Theseus is extremely improbable: it would place that occurrence as early as 1240 B. C. Yet the ancient writers generally agree on the point, and Hemsterhusius † considers it as established by them. Phidon is said to have coined money at Ægina about 865 B. C.; and, as the

* Diodorus Sic. Ecl. lib. xxiv. vol. ii. p. 523. folio. Wesseling.

† The words of Pollux, which give rise to the remarks of Hemsterhusius are clear and declaratory of the fact, but he is too late a writer to be of any authority personally.

present authors observe, it is scarcely probable that Athens should at that time have remained without a coinage, which it necessarily would if the date of that event be brought down to the age of Solon, who did not live until three centuries afterward. Perhaps the strongest argument against coinage, in the time of Theseus, is that we have every reason to suppose that no such invention had taken place in the days of Homer; who did not live until more than three hundred years, as it is generally supposed, after Theseus.

We must omit any mention of the form, weight, workmanship, and relative value of the Athenian coins, of which a very detailed and critical account is here presented to the reader, and proceed to an elucidation of a difficulty respecting the Athenian money, which has been most ably afforded by Lord Aberdeen.

‘ One of the greatest problems in numismatical difficulties, is the cause of the manifest neglect, both in design and execution, which is invariably to be met with in the silver money of Athens; in which the affectation of an archaic style of work is easily distinguished from the rudeness of remote antiquity. Different attempts have been made to elucidate the subject; De Pauw affirms, that owing to a wise economy, the magistrates whose office it was to superintend the coinage of silver, employed none but inferior artists in making the design, as well as in other branches of the process; an hypothesis wholly inconsistent with the characteristic magnificence of the republic. Pinkerton asserts, that it can only be accounted for, from the excellence of the artists being such, as to occasion all the good to be called into other countries, and none but the bad left at home. It would be somewhat difficult to explain, how Athens came to be so long honored both by the presence and the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, Zeuxis and Appelles.

‘ The Attic silver was of acknowledged purity, and circulated very extensively; the Athenian merchants, particularly in their commercial dealings with the more distant and barbarous nations, appear frequently to have made their payments in it. The barbarians being once impressed with these notions of its purity, the government of Athens, in all probability, was afraid materially to change that style and appearance, by which their money was known and valued among these people. A similar proceeding in the state of Venice throws the strongest light on the practice of the Athenians. The Venetian sechin is perhaps the most unseemly of the coins of modern Europe; it has long been however the current gold of the Turkish empire, in which its purity is universally and justly esteemed; any change in its appearance on the part of the Venetian government would have tended to create distrust.’

Several authorities are brought to bear strongly in favour of this explanation, by which the superior purity of Attic

silver money is demonstrated. Having devoted a few pages to the subject of the revenue of Athens at different periods, and the diminution of the value of money, the authors of this paper proceed to examine the question whether the Athenians, at any period of their history, coined money of gold. Their opinion is that, notwithstanding the few examples of this metal which have descended to us, in proportion to the number of spurious imitations, the Athenians did occasionally make use of gold for coinage; and they appear to rely chiefly on the testimony of Pollux, who describes the weight and value of the golden Attic stater. The very small quantity of this coinage at any time in circulation is confessed, and gives rise to some subsequent remarks from Lord Aberdeen. The disadvantages in the purchase of this metal do not appear to his Lordship to afford a sufficient reason; more especially as the Athenians did purchase it in large quantities for other purposes; and because the material must have fluctuated in value during the existence of Athens as an independent state, and would not consequently have at all times afforded an equally strong argument against its use.

His own explanation is thus given:

‘ Perhaps we may look for the cause of this practice in the mode adopted of managing the silver mines of Laurium. Every citizen of Athens wishing to become a proprietor in the mines belonging to the republic, first purchased from the state a permission to commence his operations, and ever after paid the 24th part of the annual produce of his labour into the public treasury. Hence it was manifestly the interest of the government, that nothing should impede the progress and vigour of those employed in this pursuit; and Xenophon, who wrote at length on the means of improving the administration and produce of the silver mines, recommended the number of permissions to be very much increased, and approves of the conduct of the state in allowing foreigners, denizens of Athens, to enjoy in this respect the same privileges with their own citizens.

‘ The currency of the silver money of Athens was almost universal, owing to the deservedly high reputation for purity which it possessed; and on this account we find several cities of Crete copying precisely in their coins the design, weight, and execution of the Attic tetra-drachms, in order to facilitate their intercourse with the barbarians. It is possible that the general use and estimation of the produce of the Attic mines contributed to render the Athenians averse from a coinage of another metal, which, by supplying the place of silver money at home, might in some degree tend to lessen its reputation abroad.’

Remarks on the Amyclæan Marbles, in a Letter from Lord Aberdeen to the Editor.—These marbles, of which an engraving faces the letter, were discovered by the noble Earl in a small

small Greek chapel at Slavochori, the site of the antient Amyclæ, and were thence brought to England. The first part of the letter contains an exposition of the literary frauds of the Abbé Fourmont, of which these marbles supply another indisputable proof; his description, his drawings, and his pretended inscriptions on the place at which they were found, being altogether destitute of truth. The carvings on them represent female ornaments; and the conclusion, at which the editor and his noble friend arrive, is that they were offerings made by two priestesses, whose names are imperfectly traced, to the deity of some temple in the neighbourhood.

Remarks on some Greek Inscriptions, by the Editor. — This portion of the volume contains several Greek inscriptions, the greater part of which have never been before published, with illustrative remarks on them by the editor. The antiquary will do well to consult the volume: but the subject is of too exclusive a nature to occupy a large portion of our pages, and a contracted notice would be inadequate to the purpose.

On the Topography of Athens, by Mr. Hawkins. — This dissertation appears to be an excellent *viaticum* for all who visit Athens. The writer takes Pausanias as his guide, together with Meursius; although he has detected some inaccuracies in the latter, when collecting the accounts of various antient authors. The occasional deficiencies in Pausanias he supplies with information from other books of antiquity; and he has gained much for his purpose, from the incidental mention of the relative situations of buildings scattered in their works. From these sources he ultimately forms a topographical plan of Athens, leading us in succession to the most remarkable sites and standing ruins of the place: how far accurately, we are not enabled to say: but on paper his conclusions appear to be drawn from adequate and co-inciding authorities.

The next essay relates to the vale of Tempe, from the same writer; as does a succeeding communication also, '*On the Syrinx of Strabo, and Passage of the Euripus.*' The word σύριγξ appears to be applied by Strabo, when describing the Euripus, in an unusual sense, and one which has hitherto puzzled all commentators: the passage runs thus: "Ἐς, δὲ ἐπ' αὐτῷ γεφύρῳ διπλεθρος, ὡς εἶρηκα· πύργος δ' ἐκατέρωθεν ἐφάσκειν, ὁ μὲν ἐκ τῆς Χαλκίδος, ὁ δ' ἐκ τῆς βοιωτίας· διωκοδόμηται δ' εἰς αὐτὸν (αὐλὴς) σύριγξ." The most natural key to so difficult a sentence must be a mention of the same historical fact in another author, and Mr. Hawkins has procured one from *Diodorus*, lib. xiii. 173.; which, when compressed, is nearly

as follows. The Chalcidians, and most of the Eubœans, having separated themselves from the Athenian alliance, were fearful lest their towns should be besieged; and proposed therefore to join the Bœotians in damming up the Euripus.* The Bœotians assented: multitudes were employed in the undertaking; "a mole (χωμα) was formed on the side of Eubœa near Chalcis, and on the side of Bœotia near Aulis, for this was the narrowest part. It is to be observed that there had been always a current in this place, and frequent changes of the tides, but now the violence of these became much greater, the sea being confined within a narrow space, and a passage was left for one vessel only. They constructed also high towers on the ends of the two moles, and laid wooden bridges over the currents between."

The plural form, in speaking of "bridges and currents," causes a difficulty in a passage which would otherwise have been clear enough. Mr. Hawkins is compelled to treat these plurals as if they had been nouns singular, and then proceeds to reconcile Diodorus with Strabo. The word διακοδομεῖν has been explained by Vossius to signify "*ædificationem separare et dividere, locumque intermedium vacuum relinquere.*" Strabo therefore says that the bridge was not continuous, but, on the side nearest to the Bœotian shore †, had a canal left for navigation, which might be covered with a hanging bridge. Συγγυξ consequently, according to Vossius, means a navigable canal in the sea, and must be the current or διάβρος of Diodorus. As Mr. H. observes, Syrinx conveys the idea of a circular or rather cylindrical passage; and he conceives the obvious result of this explanation to be that the Syrinx in question must have been a sort of tunnel, the most likely method (he adds) for a civil engineer to have selected.

' Nor is there any difficulty in supposing that such must have been the construction of this passage in the time of Strabo, when the use of the arch was well known; although it may be necessary, with a view to establish this hypothesis, to point out in a practical way the mode of its application. Let us suppose, then, that two towers are to be built at the two opposite ends of such a mole, and that a navigable passage is to be left between, while some mode of communication is required above. It is evident that the foundation of the two walls contiguous to the passage ought to be laid on an inverted arch, there being no other effectual mode of giving it any stability. The communication above

* In the twenty-first year of the Peloponnesian war, when the Athenians had again become masters of the sea.

† That is, if we read αὐλῶν in Strabo.

might be effected by the means of a moveable or an immoveable bridge. The Romans would undoubtedly in most cases have chosen the latter, and when we consider the importance which they attributed to this passage in a military point of view, it is probable that such was the construction which they adopted. It is hardly necessary to add that the two opposite arches would form a tunnel.

‘The term *Syrinx*, however, could not with propriety have been applied to a passage which was not truly cylindrical, *i. e.* where the length of the passage was not greater than its diameter; and we have no other way of getting over this difficulty than by supposing that a more than usual breadth was given to the two towers in this direction, which is by no means inconsistent with the purpose for which they were built.’

Mr. Hawkins allows that his explanation amounts, after all, to only a plausible hypothesis: but it would undoubtedly be more than plausible, if any instances of similar construction could be proved to exist among the remains of antient architecture. Strabo lived about four centuries after this building was erected; and if, as Mr. H. allows, it was in his time, notwithstanding some additional fortifications, the same in general form as when first built, the knowledge and the application of the arch to similar works in his age would be no argument in favour of its existence four hundred years antecedently. We may add that, if this *Syrinx* was composed of two different materials, the half that was under water being of masonry, and the upper semi-circle of wood, it seems improbable that the two should have been embraced under one name: but, as we have no better hypothesis of our own to suggest, it is irrelevant to discuss any farther the ingenious conjecture which has been proposed.

The remaining papers in this interesting publication consist of some Designs and Descriptions of Antiquities brought from Athens; An Illustration of a Panoramic View of Athens, given in an earlier part of the volume, by Mr. Haygarth; Remarks on the Buildings of the *Thesauri*, or Treasuries of the Greeks, in their earlier Ages, by the Editor; Remarks on the Demetrian System of the Troad, by the Editor; and, lastly, Remarks on an Architectural Inscription brought from Athens, and now in the British Museum, by Mr. Wilkins.

With this table of contents we are compelled to close our observations. That we esteem the work as highly valuable may have been collected from the general tenor of our observations. Indeed, it is not merely a guide for the traveller or the virtuoso, but calculated to call forth the learning of the scholar in the investigation of the discoveries which it relates, and of the hypotheses founded on them. With regard to

the arrangement of it we need not say much, because, having placed the papers in the order in which they occur in the volume, our readers will see at once that little method has been pursued in classification. It is rather a magazine of the journals of modern travellers, and the descriptions of the remains of antiquity found in the countries in which they travelled, than a book classed either geographically or with reference to the subjects treated in it. In a single volume like the present, this objection does not seem very material to us: but, if it were to have been considered as the forerunner of others, composed of like substance, a greater attention to arrangement would doubtless have been desirable; and we have just seen a continuation of it advertized, to which we shall attend at a future opportunity.

ART. VII. *Tales of My Landlord*, Third Series, collected and arranged by Jedediah Cleishbotham, School-master and Parish-clerk of Gandercleugh. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 12s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Hurst, Robinson, and Co. 1819.

WHEN we last had an opportunity of commenting on the productions of that fictitious personage, Mr. Jedediah Cleishbotham, we could not but remark, and report to our readers, the great inequality of merit, as well in conception as in description, which existed in the same tale; so that, while in some parts we admired the energy, in others we lamented the lassitude and debility of the writer. It is now, we fear, rather a matter of certainty than speculation that the candles were burning low, and the festivity beginning to flag, when Mr. Cleishbotham sent us those very tales; for he has since proved himself unmindful of the poet's advice,

——— “*edisti satis, atque bibisti,
Tempus abire tibi est.*”

He has continued to sit at the table until the better part of his audience had left him, or had fallen asleep; and, instead of making his own *congé* in seasonable time, he has told another story, more suitable to such an occasion and such company than to his own well-earned fame. Who that is eager to shine in conversation, or to maintain a character for wit, for ready anecdote, for apt illustration, or for multifarious reading, has not in rather a saddened mood occasionally confessed to himself that he remained at such a table, or lingered with such a coterie, just one hour too long? This truth generally recurs either during a solitary return home, or

very early on the following morning; and it is usually accompanied by the unpleasing conviction that as much reputation was lost during that last heavy hour, as had been fairly gained in the course of the three that preceded it.

To drop our metaphor, let us plainly state our opinion that the present series of tales is so inferior to any which have owed their parentage to the same source, as to lead us to fear that the mine is really exhausted; and, unless the author strikes into a new vein, the present specimens of ore are such that we conceive he judges rightly in abandoning all design of working it for the future. We must claim, nevertheless, an exemption for him, from one part of the penalty which seems attached to him by the judgment that we have given: for we will not allow that a character so well established in this branch of our national literature can be retrospectively injured by a subsequent failure; and, whatever we may think of the tales before us, that opinion belongs exclusively to them, and shall in no way lessen in our estimation the talents that produced their predecessors. So highly, indeed, do we esteem this author, that while we now condemn him by comparison with himself, we allow that, were he unknown to us by previous works, we should probably bestow much partial praise on these volumes, as compared with the majority of those works of fiction which our duty leads us to examine.

Our first inquiry, on opening a series of '*Tales of My Landlord*,' is, which is the new character, or how many such has the author given us? Let him not complain: it is he himself who has accustomed us to the expectation, high as it is, of finding some of the more extraordinary traits of human character embodied and displayed in a manner equally forcible and natural, in every novel that he writes; and in such a manner that, while we allow the person represented to be of a cast nearly new to us, we confess the close imitation of nature, without having any particular original in our eye. Where the subjects did not admit of such bold designs, he has caught the variable shades of manners in more ordinary life; and, by rendering the incidents of his tales subservient to the purposes of developement of character, he has shewn us that there is not that uniformity in general life which we suppose, but that the fault lies in the dullness of our own perceptions. When they are directed by him, the variety of the prospect suddenly increases; and, although that which we see may not be altogether new, yet we view it in so new a light that the effect on us is equivalent.

How, then, are we disappointed when, in reading the first of these tales, ('*The Bride of Lammermoor*,') the only characters

racters which are altogether new, as coming from this author, are recognized by us as very old acquaintance in other societies! In the second tale, ('The Legend of Montrose,') we find undoubtedly a personage whom we do not recollect to have seen before: but, if the rudeness of the remark may be excused, we are not very anxious to see him again; for, as he scarcely ever leaves us during the whole tale, and is most unalterable in the manner and matter of his communications, it may be supposed that he soon becomes exceedingly tiresome.

Let us take things in order. — 'The Bride of Lammermoor' is a comi-tragic tale, for the comedy comes first and is succeeded by tragical results. It is quite a dramatic composition, in which the more prominent characters are a Scotch Lord Ravenswood, a baron by courtesy, the honours of nobility having been forfeited by attainder in his father's time: — Sir William Ashton, Lord-keeper, and proprietor by purchase of Ravenswood Castle and estates, on which he resided, the family of the former owner having retired to a desolate tower called Wolf's Crag, overlooking the German Ocean, in the same neighbourhood: — Lady Ashton, a haughty ambitious woman, and of a better family than her husband, who was more conspicuous for station than ancestry: — their daughter Lucy, no very remarkable heroine of romance: — the Laird of Bucklaw, a dissipated boorish young man: — Captain Craigen-gelt, his companion, a person in the pay of the exiled family of the Stuarts; — and last, though not least, Caleb Balderstone, a faithful old butler of the Ravenswood family, living with his master at the old tower of Wolf's Crag. Villagers and old witches, or something so near a-kin to them as to defy our powers of discrimination, complete the groupe; with the exception of personages of occasional appearance and no direct interference in the conduct of the story. The plot turns on an attachment formed between the Baron and Lucy Ashton, and the fatal termination of it constitutes the catastrophe of the tale.

Ravenswood, a young man of high spirit and family-pride, cherishes a strong feeling of hostility towards Sir William Ashton; partly arising from that contempt with which decayed nobility are apt to view the new children of fortune; but more particularly from a conviction that, in the acquisition of the Ravenswood property, unfair advantages had been taken of his father's distresses by Sir William, and that the property was in fact lost by a sort of legalized pillage which caused the old Lord's death. Sir W. Ashton, a cautious vacillating old place-hunter, in which pursuit he had been

no unfortunate speculator, not only entertained some personal fears of his exasperated neighbour, who considered him almost as the murderer of his father, but had some apprehensions that he had really pushed matters a little too far in his litigations with the former Lord Ravenswood, which might hereafter lead to some unpleasant explanations. Impelled by these and some other motives, during a casual absence of his wife, he courted the acquaintance of Ravenswood by direct and indirect methods, offices of service, and expressions of unreserved candor. The first attempts were repelled with haughty incivility: but love soon vanquished pride, and Ravenswood even became an inmate in the hall of his fathers, now in the possession of another. Lady Ashton, on her return to her home, discovered the state of her daughter's heart, and, reprobating her husband's conduct, caused Ravenswood to leave the house. An exchange of vows and tokens of attachment nevertheless took place before the separation, and a mutual engagement was formed by the two parties and committed to paper. Prophetic old women, indeed, predicted a melancholy end to these nuptials, if ever they took place; and certain antient sayings were called to mind and applied to the parties in question. Shortly after this parting, Ravenswood, weary of an idle life, accepted the interference of a noble marquis related to him by blood, and attempted to obtain for himself an honorable support by executing some government-commission abroad. In his absence, no efforts were left untried to undermine the faith of his betrothed wife; who was coaxed and terrified by turns, in order to induce her to accept the boorish Bucklaw for her husband. One of the old crones above mentioned was placed near her person, to work on her superstitious fears; and all letters and replies were intercepted by her mother, who was the main agent in this inhuman persecution. These attempts having long failed to produce their intended effect, at last it was proposed that Lucy should write to Ravenswood a letter dictated by the mother, to ascertain whether he still clung to the engagement, or was willing to relinquish it; and she was brought to consent to receive the hand of Bucklaw if her former lover gave up this pledge, *or delayed an answer beyond a specified time*. No answer having arrived, the nuptials were prepared, and Lucy Ashton was in the act of signing the marriage-contract with Bucklaw, and had indeed placed her signature to a paper, when Ravenswood burst in. From the scene that followed, we will presently give some extracts. Lucy was in such a state of stupor, that she was unable to make any explanations or assurances of retained affection to Ravenswood; he

saw her written agreement to wed another; and, after some severe upbraidings, he tore himself away from her, who was almost unconscious of the events that were passing. In the interval between this rencontre and the marriage with Bucklaw, Lucy remained in the most suspicious composure, or rather apathy of mind: but the marriage was celebrated, and the bridegroom had not long reached his chamber when dreadful screams were heard. On repairing to the spot, and bursting open the door, the family discovered Bucklaw bleeding on the ground, but for some time could not find Lucy; who was at last perceived crouched like a hare in a corner of the room, leaving no doubt of the author of the bloody deed and the insanity of the agent. Bucklaw, however, ultimately recovered: but Lucy was soon followed by her relatives to the grave. At the funeral, one additional and uninvited mourner appeared, of all others the most hateful to the Ashtons; it was Ravenswood: but the ceremony was not materially interrupted by his presence, although a challenge from a young officer, brother of the deceased, was the consequence. On the following day, Ravenswood, while in the act of going on horseback to keep this appointment, in a fit of absence of mind urged his horse over some dangerous quick-sands, in which he and his steed were immediately swallowed up; thus fulfilling an antient prediction against his house. Of the other persons of the story, it is needless to add particulars.

We see little in this general outline to attract attention; and in the tale itself the latter and interesting part is compressed into a small space: while the earlier portions, if not enlivened, are at least filled up with Caleb Balderstone's attempts to preserve the honour of the Ravenswood family, and conceal his master's fallen fortunes and absolute poverty at his lonely tower of Wolf's Crag. In fact, this old butler performs nearly the same office to this story, which Mr. Oldbuck the Antiquary discharges in that in which his character appears. Neither Caleb nor the Antiquary is much, if in any degree, concerned in retarding or accelerating the catastrophe of the respective plots: but they are both pushed forwards most prominently on the stage, to amuse the audience, as insulated characters, little connected with the main interest of the piece, which is suffered to fall asleep during their exhibition.* The aged butler has yet another and a much

* This similarity is restricted to the mode of introduction: to resemblance of character there are no approaches whatever, as it may be supposed: nor, as may be seen from a reference to our review of that work, do we consider the Antiquary as unpleasantly introduced, though he is unnecessary to the drama.

stronger resemblance, not derived simply from the mode of his introduction to us, but inherent in his composition: he is almost a copy of the character of Sharp in the farce of the Lying Valet; and so very close is this similitude, that we will venture to say that it has occurred to almost every individual who has read the farce and the novel. The excuses which he makes for bad entertainment, his pretences that the want of better cheer and more favourable appearances are only the effect of accident, the ways and means to which he has recourse to raise supplies, the ready lie in his master's cause, and many such points, render the comparison as just as it is obvious. In some of the other characters, we have traced different features to different types in the present author, and we cannot but look on those to which we allude among them rather as new combinations than as creations. Much of this is to be found in Ravenswood, and something in Lady Ashton.

Two particular occasions afford an opening for Mr. Caleb Balderstone to exhibit: the one when Ravenswood, who had left his tower early in the tale with the intention of quitting Scotland, returns to it unexpectedly, bringing with him the Laird of Bucklaw, for the purpose of concealing him there a short time, because he was in danger of being arrested as a Jacobite: the other, when Sir W. Ashton and his daughter take shelter during a tempestuous night at the same place. This visit was indeed the effect of stratagem on the part of the Lord-keeper; and it was from it that his acquaintance with Ravenswood, or the Master of Ravenswood as he is honorarily styled, commenced.

We will first give a description of the tower in which this hoary seneschal presided:

"You will find little to tempt you at Wolf's Crag," said the Master. "I know not that I can promise you more than the shelter of my roof; all, and more than all our stock of wine and provisions was exhausted at the late occasion."

"Long may it be ere provision is needed for the like purpose," answered Bucklaw; "but you should not drink up the last flask at a dirge; there is ill luck in that."

"There is ill luck, I think, in whatever belongs to me," said Ravenswood. "But yonder is Wolf's Crag, and whatever it still contains is at your service."

The roar of the sea had long announced their approach to the cliffs, on the summit of which, like the nest of some sea-eagle, the founder of the fortalice had perched his eyry. The pale moon, which had hitherto been contending with flitting clouds, now shone out, and gave them a view of the solitary and naked tower, situated on a projecting cliff that beetled on the German Ocean.

Ocean. On three sides the rock was precipitous; on the fourth, which was that toward the land, it had been originally fenced by an artificial ditch and draw-bridge, but the latter was broken down and ruinous, and the former had been in part filled up, so as to allow passage for a horseman into the narrow court-yard, encircled on two sides with low offices and stables, partly ruinous, and closed on the landward front by a low embattled wall, while the remaining side of the quadrangle was occupied by the tower itself, which, tall and narrow, and built of a greyish stone, stood glimmering in the moonlight, like the sheeted spectre of some huge giant. A wilder, or more disconsolate dwelling, it was perhaps difficult to conceive. The sombrous and heavy sound of the billows, successively dashing against the rocky beach at a profound distance beneath, was to the ear what the landscape was to the eye — a symbol of unvaried and monotonous melancholy, not unmingled with horror.

‘Although the night was not far advanced, there was no sign of living inhabitant about this forlorn abode, excepting that one, and only one, of the narrow and staunchelled windows which appeared at irregular heights and distances in the walls of the building, showed a small glimmer of light.’

“There,” said Ravenswood, “sits the only male domestic that remains to the house of Ravenswood; and it is well that he does remain there, since otherwise, we had little hope to find either light or fire. But follow me cautiously; the road is narrow, and admits only one horse in front.”

‘In effect, the path led along a kind of isthmus, at the peninsular extremity of which the tower was situated, with that exclusive attention to strength and security, in preference to every circumstance of convenience, which dictated to the Scottish barons the choice of their situations, as well as their style of building.’

For a specimen of Caleb’s mendacious qualities, — or of his ingenuity, if the other term be too harsh, — we refer to the apparently accidental visit of Sir W. Ashton and his daughter Lucy, when out on a hunting-party. They were not at first recognized by Ravenswood, but their reception by him will disclose some parts of his character.

“This then,” the stranger said, “is the ancient castle of Wolf’s Crag, often mentioned in the Scottish records,” looking to the old tower then darkening under the influence of a stormy cloud, that formed its back ground: for at the distance of a short mile, the chace having been circuitous had brought the hunters back nearly to the point which they had attained when Ravenswood and Bucklaw set forth to join them.

‘Ravenswood answered this observation with a cold and distant assent.

“It was, as I have heard,” continued the stranger, unabashed by his coldness, “one of the most early possessions of the honourable family of Ravenswood.”

“Their

“ Their earliest possession,” answered the Master, “ and probably their latest.”

“ I — I — I should hope not, Sir,” answered the stranger, clearing his voice with more than one cough, and making an effort to overcome a certain degree of hesitation, — “ Scotland knows what she owes to this ancient family, and remembers their frequent and honourable achievements. I have little doubt, that, were it properly represented to her majesty that so ancient and noble a family were subjected to dilapidation — I mean to decay — means might be found, *ad re-ædificandam antiquam domum* —”

“ I will save you the trouble, Sir, of discussing this point farther,” said the Master haughtily. “ I am the heir of that unfortunate House — I am the Master of Ravenswood — and you, Sir, who seem to be a gentleman of fashion and education, must be sensible, that the next mortification after being unhappy, is the being loaded with undesired commiseration.” —

“ The horse of the fair huntress shewed symptoms of impatience and restiveness, and it became impossible for Ravenswood, as a man or a gentleman, to leave her abruptly to the care of an aged father or her menial attendants. He was, or believed himself, obliged in courtesy to take hold of her bridle, and assist her in managing the unruly animal. While he was thus engaged, the old gentleman observed that the storm seemed to increase — that they were far from Lord Bittlebrain’s, whose guests they were for the present — and that he would be obliged to the Master of Ravenswood to point him the way to the nearest place of refuge from the storm. At the same time he cast a wistful and embarrassed look towards the Tower of Wolf’s Crag, which seemed to render it almost impossible for the owner to avoid offering an old man and a lady, in such an emergency, the temporary use of his house. Indeed, the condition of the young huntress rendered this courtesy indispensable; for, in the course of the services which he rendered, he could not but perceive that she trembled much, and was extremely agitated, from her apprehensions, doubtless, of the coming storm.

“ I know not if the Master of Ravenswood shared her terrors, but he was not entirely free from something like a similar disorder of nerves, as he observed, “ The Tower of Wolf’s Crag has nothing to offer beyond the shelter of its roof, but if that can be acceptable at such a moment” — he paused, as if the rest of the invitation stuck in his throat. But the old gentleman, his self-constituted companion, did not allow him to recede from the invitation, which he had rather suffered to be implied than directly expressed.

“ The storm,” said the stranger, “ must be an apology for waiving ceremony — his daughter’s health was weak — she had suffered much from a recent alarm — he trusted their intrusion on the Master of Ravenswood’s hospitality would not be altogether unpardonable in the circumstances of the case — his child’s safety must be dearer to him than ceremony.”

“ There

‘ There was no room to retreat. The Master of Ravenswood led the way, continuing to keep hold of the lady’s bridle to prevent her horse from starting at some unexpected explosion of thunder. He was not so bewildered in his own hurried reflections, but what he remarked, that the deadly paleness which had occupied her neck and temples, and such of her features as the riding-mask left exposed, gave place to a deep and rosy suffusion; and he felt with embarrassment that a flush was by tacit sympathy excited in his own cheeks. The stranger, with watchfulness which he disguised under apprehensions for the safety of his daughter, continued to observe the expression of the Master’s countenance as they ascended the hill to Wolf’s Crag. When they stood in front of that ancient fortress, Ravenswood’s emotions were of a very complicated description; and as he led the way into the rude court-yard, and halloo’d to Caleb to give attendance, there was a tone of sternness, almost of fierceness, which seemed somewhat alien from the courtesies of one who is receiving honoured guests.’ —

‘ The thunder-bolt, which had stunned all who were within hearing of it, had only served to awaken the bold and inventive genius of the flower of Majors-Domo. Almost before the clatter had ceased, and while there was yet scarce an assurance whether the castle was standing or falling, Caleb exclaimed, “Heavens be praised! — this comes to hand like the boul of a pint-stoup.” He then barred the kitchen door in the face of the Lord Keeper’s servant, whom he perceived returning from the party at the gate, and muttering, “how the de’il came he in? — but de’il may care — Mysie, what are ye sitting skaking and greeting in the chimney nuik for? Come here — or stay where ye are, and skirl as loud as ye can — it’s a’ ye’re guid for — I say, ye auld deevil, skirl — skirl — louder — louder — woman! — gar the gentles hear ye in the ha’ — I have heard ye as far off as the Bass for a less matter. And stay — down wi’ that crockery.”

‘ And with a sweeping blow, he threw down from a shelf some articles of pewter and earthen-ware. He exalted his voice amid the clatter, shouting and roaring in a manner which changed Mysie’s hysterical apprehensions of the thunder into fears that her old fellow-servant was gone distracted. “He has dung down a’ the bits o’ pigs too — the only thing we had left to haud a soup milk — and he has spilt the hatted kitt that was for the Master’s dinner. Mercy save us, the auld man’s ga’en wud wi’ the thunner!”

‘ “Haud your tongue, ye b——,” said Caleb, in the impetuous and overbearing triumph of successful invention, “a’s provided now — dinner and a’ thing — the thunner’s done a’ in a clap of a hand!” —

‘ “Puir man, he’s muckle astray,” said Mysie, looking at him with a mixture of pity and alarm; “I wish he may ever come hame to himsell again.”

‘ “Here, ye auld doited deevil,” said Caleb, still exulting in his extrication from a dilemma which seemed insurmountable; “keep

"keep the strange man out of the kitchen—swear the thunder came down the chimley, and spoiled the best dinner ye ever dressed—beef—bacon—kid—lark—leveret—wild-fowl—venison, and what not. Lay it on thick, and never mind expences. I'll awa' up to the ha'—make a' the confusion ye can—but be sure ye keep out the strange servant."

'With these charges to his ally, Caleb posted up to the hall, but stopping to reconnoitre through an aperture, which time, for the convenience of many a domestic in succession, had made in the door, and perceiving the situation of Miss Ashton, he had prudence enough to make a pause, both to avoid adding to her alarm, and in order to secure attention to his account of the disastrous effects of the thunder.

'But when he perceived that the lady was recovered, and heard the conversation turn upon the accommodation and refreshment which the castle afforded, he thought it time to burst into the room in the manner announced in the last chapter.

"Wull a wins!—wull a wins!—such a misfortune to befall the house of Ravenswood, and I to live to see it!"

"What is the matter, Caleb?" said his master, somewhat alarmed in his turn; "has any part of the castle fallen?"

"Castle fu'an?—na, but the sute's fa'an, and the thunder come right down the kitchen-lumm, and the things are a' lyin' here awa', there awa', like the Laird o' Hotchpotch's lands—and wi' brave guests of honour and quality to entertain,"—a low bow here to Sir William Ashton and his daughter,— "and nae thing left in the house fit to present for dinner—or for supper either, for aught that I can see."

"I verily believe you, Caleb," said Ravenswood drily.

Balderstone here turned to his master a half-upbraiding, half-imploing countenance, and edged towards him as he repeated, "It was nae great matter of preparation; but just something added to your honour's ordinary course of fare—*petty cover*, as they say at the Louvre—three courses and the fruit."

We fear that the faithful old servant does not appear to any very great advantage in this extract, for there is a staleness about him which renders all his stratagems tiresome. Many of them, too, are more of a character to amuse children than to please grown persons. Of these tricks we will omit all mention: but, on the occasion last mentioned, it may be some consolation to know that he did at last, by a predatory excursion to a neighbouring hamlet, procure a good supper for his master and his guests.

Among other actors in the drama, is an old woman of the name of Alice, a mysterious prophetic person; who, living in a cottage now belonging to Sir W. Ashton, retained a firm allegiance to the old proprietors of Ravenswood, and indeed darkly predicted some of the concluding scenes of their story. The circumstance of her death gives an opportunity for in-

roducing three old Scottish crones, who come to watch the body before interment, Ravenswood being present at their arrival; and, if he, as it is remarked, was struck with the similarity of these women to the witches in *Macbeth*, the reader will probably be not less reminded of them at their next appearance, towards the close of the tale; where they are almost divested of all the attributes of humanity, and are nearly too disgusting for representation. To these beldams, in the present instance, a grave-digger succeeds, for whom *Shakspeare* appears also to have supplied some hints; "custom having made his business a property of easiness in him," to the full extent in which it had affected the Danish clown in *Hamlet*.

The concluding scenes of the novel are deeply tragic, and they are also undoubtedly worked up with very considerable ability, forming a singular contrast to the vapid contents of the earlier pages. We turn to the period at which Miss Ashton, having received no intelligence from Ravenswood, signs the contract of marriage with Bucklaw:

"It was now Miss Ashton's turn to sign the writings, and she was guided by her watchful mother to the table for that purpose. At her first attempt, she began to write with a dry pen, and when the circumstance was pointed out, seemed unable, after several attempts, to dip it in the massive silver ink-standish, which stood full before her. Lady Ashton's vigilance hastened to supply the deficiency. I have myself seen the fatal deed, and in the distinct characters in which the name of Lucy Ashton is traced on each page, there is only a very slight tremulous irregularity, indicative of her state of mind at the time of the subscription. But the last signature is incomplete, defaced, and blotted; for while her hand was employed in tracing it, the hasty tramp of a horse was heard at the gate, succeeded by a step in the outer gallery, and a voice, which, in a commanding tone, bore down the opposition of the menials. The pen dropped from Lucy's fingers, as she exclaimed with a faint shriek — "He is come — he is come!" — Hardly had Miss Ashton dropped the pen, when the door of the apartment flew open, and the Master of Ravenswood entered the apartment."

"He planted himself full in the middle of the apartment, opposite to the table at which Lucy was seated, on whom, as if she had been alone in the chamber, he bent his eyes with a mingled expression of deep grief and deliberate indignation. His dark-coloured riding cloak, displaced from one shoulder, hung around one side of his person in the ample folds of the Spanish mantle. The rest of his rich dress was travel-soil'd, and deranged by hard riding. He had a sword by his side, and pistols in his belt. His slouched hat, which he had not removed at entrance, gave an additional gloom to his dark features, which, wasted by sorrow, and
marked

marked by the ghastly look communicated by long illness, added to a countenance naturally somewhat stern and wild, a fierce and even savage expression. The matted and dishevelled locks of hair which escaped from under his hat, together with his fixed and unmoved posture, made his head more resemble that of a marble bust than of a living man. He said not a single word, and there was a deep silence in the company for more than two minutes.—

‘He raised his hat from his forehead, and, gazing upon Lucy with eyes in which an expression of sorrow overcame their late fierceness, spread his dishevelled locks back from his face, and said, “Do you know me, Miss Ashton?—I am still Edgar Ravenswood.” She was silent; and he went on, with increasing vehemence—“I am still that Edgar Ravenswood, who, for your affection, renounced the dear ties by which injured honour bound him to seek vengeance. I am that Ravenswood, who, for your sake, forgave, nay, clasped hands in friendship with the oppressor and pillager of his house—the traducer and murderer of his father.”

“My daughter,” answered Lady Ashton, interrupting him, “has no occasion to dispute the identity of your person; the venom of your present language is sufficient to remind her, that she speaks with the mortal enemy of her father.”

“I pray you to be patient, madam,” answered Ravenswood; “my answer must come from her own lips.—Once more, Miss Lucy Ashton, I am that Ravenswood to whom you granted the solemn engagement, which you now desire to retract and cancel.”

‘Lucy’s bloodless lips could only falter out the words, “It was my mother.”’—

‘Ravenswood gazed upon the deed, as if petrified. “And it was without fraud or compulsion,” said he, looking toward the clergyman, “that Miss Ashton subscribed this parchment?”’

“I vouch it upon my sacred character.”

“This is, indeed, madam, an undeniable piece of evidence,” said Ravenswood sternly; “and it will be equally unnecessary and dishonourable to waste another word in useless remonstrance or reproach. There, madam,” he said, laying down before Lucy the signed paper and the broken piece of gold—“there are the evidences of your first engagement; may you be more faithful to that which you have just formed. I will trouble you to return the corresponding tokens of my ill-placed confidence—I ought rather to say of my egregious folly.”

‘Lucy returned the scornful glance of her lover with a gaze, from which perception seemed to have been banished; yet she seemed partly to have understood his meaning, for she raised her hands as if to undo a blue ribbon which she wore around her neck. She was unable to accomplish her purpose, but Lady Ashton cut the ribbon asunder, and detached the broken piece of gold which Miss Ashton had till then worn concealed in her bosom; the written counterpart of the lovers’ engagement she for some time had had in her own possession. With a haughty curtesy, she delivered

livered both to Ravenswood, who was much softened when he took the piece of gold.

“ And she could wear it thus,” he said — speaking to himself — “ could wear it in her very bosom — could wear it next to her heart — even when — but complaint avails not,” he said, dashing from his eye the tear which had gathered in it, and resuming the stern composure of his manner. He strode to the chimney, and threw into the fire the paper and piece of gold, stamping upon the coals with the heel of his boot, as if to insure their destruction. “ I will be no longer,” he then said, “ an intruder here — Your evil wishes, and your worse offices, Lady Ashton, I will only return, by hoping these will be your last machinations against your daughter’s honour and happiness. — And to you, madam,” he said, addressing Lucy, “ I have nothing farther to say, except to pray to God that you may not become a world’s wonder for this act of wilful and deliberate perjury.” — Having uttered these words, he turned on his heel, and left the apartment.*

Did we consider ourselves as justified in making farther extracts, we should atone for the injury that we have done the old butler in the eyes of our readers, (not wantonly, but necessarily,) by describing the parting scene between him and his master, when he prognosticated that the latter left his ruinous home for the last time: but here we must hold our hand. The conception of the tale is clearly better than the execution of it. We have omitted to notice one or two instances of events introduced contrary to the laws of nature, where the *Dea ex machinã* has been altogether unrequired by the necessities of the story: but this has not been very unusual with the author.

The second and shorter tale is ‘ The Legend of Montrose.’ We have met with persons who have preferred it to its precursor, but cannot ourselves become converts to that opinion; the story has little or no interest, and we therefore see no necessity for analysing it, the author himself having probably considered it rather as a picture of manners. The time of the preceding tale was fixed soon after the revolution of 1688, but that of the present is somewhat earlier; — in the sixteenth century, says the text, but by an error of the press, we presume, for the *seventeenth*, because the events are co-temporaneous and in connection with the civil wars of Charles I.

* The *deed* was the contract of marriage with Bucklaw, which, as Lucy was unable to answer Ravenswood, Lady Ashton insidiously prevailed on him to consider as an undeniable proof of his rejection by her daughter.

The northern nobility, and many chiefs of Highland clans, had obstinately resisted the adoption of the Solemn League and Covenant; conceiving a connection with royalty to be their natural state, and entertaining an aversion to the Presbyterian form of religious worship. At this same period, a large army had been sent from Scotland to the assistance of the Parliament in England;—not very justifiably, if we recollect the late treaty that had been made between the King and his Scotch subjects. This circumstance, therefore, offered additional encouragement to the loyalists, but their warfare was likely to be desultory because they had no acknowledged head. The Marquis of Argyle seems in consequence to have looked on the first movements of the loyalists with less apprehension than was requisite: but shortly they assumed a more decided character by the arrival of Lord Montrose, who in the present tale is first introduced to us under the disguise of a valet to Lord Menteith, travelling to join the Highland loyalists. Montrose having assumed the command, the war acquired a more important course; and the tale, with which we are now engaged, may be considered as a kind of illustration of the opening of it, containing an episode or two of so domestic or private a nature as scarcely to be admitted among the materials of public and political annals. We have already offered our apology for not entering into a detailed account of it: but, as we have diverted to a new kind of character imagined by the author, we will allow him both to introduce that person to our readers and to make them better acquainted with himself. The individual in question is a Captain Dalgetty; who had been engaged in the military service of half the powers of Europe, and is intended to represent a class of men at that time common in Europe, who fought for any cause, or any prince, according as the pay, promotion, or other temptations suited their views; adapting the maxim, "*omne solum forti patria est*," to their own convenience. The want of principle exhibited in the selection of their service, or in their mode of changing masters, seems to be described almost extravagantly: but we have no criterion, except human nature generally, by which we can examine the description, and she is rather disgraced by it than outraged.

“Truly, my lord,” said the trooper, “my name is Dalgetty—Dugald Dalgetty, Ritt-master Dugald Dalgetty of Drumwacket, at your honourable service to command. It is a name you may have seen in *Gallo-Belgicus*, the *Swedish Intelligencer*, or, if you read High Dutch, in the *Fliegenden Merceur de Lipsic*. My father, my lord, having by unthrifty courses re-

ducted

ducted a fair patrimony to a nonentity, I had no better shift, when I was eighteen years auld, than to carry the learning whilk I had acquired at the Mareschal-College of Aberdeen, my gentle bluid and designation of Drumthwacket, together with a pair of stalwarth arms, and legs conform, to the German wars, there to push my way as a cavalier of fortune. My lord, my legs and arms stood me in more stead than either my gentle kin or my book-lear, and I found myself trailing a pike as a private gentleman under old Sir Ludovick Leslie, where I learned the rules o' service sae tightly, that I will not forget them in a hurry. Sir, I have been made to stand guard eight hours, being from twelve at noon to eight o'clock of the night, at the palace, armed with back and breast, head-piece and bracelets, being iron to the teeth, in a bitter frost, and the ice was as hard as ever was flint; and all for stopping an instant to speak to my landlady, when I should have gone to roll-call."

"And doubtless, sir," replied Lord Menteith, "you have gone through some hot service, as well as this same cold duty you talk of?"

"Surely, my lord, it doth not become me to speak; but he that hath seen the fields of Leipsic and of Lutzen, may be said to have seen pitched battles. And one who hath witnessed the intaking of Frankfort, and Spanheim, and Nuremberg, and so forth, should know something about leaguers, storms, onslaughts and outfalls."

"But your merit, sir, and experience, were, doubtless, followed by promotion?"

"It came slow, my lord; dooms slow," replied Dalgetty; "but as my Scottish countrymen, the fathers of the war, and the rakers of those valorous Scottish regiments that were the dread of Germany, began to fall pretty thick, what with pestilence and what with the sword, why we, their children, succeeded to their inheritance. Sir, I was six years first private gentleman of the company, and three years lance-speisade: disdaining to receive a halbert, as unbecoming my birth. Wherefore I was ultimately promoted to be a fahn-dragger, as the High Dutch call it, (which signifies an ancient) in the King's Leif Regiment of Black Horse, and thereafter I arose to be lieutenant and ritt-master, under that invincible monarch, the bulwark of the Protestant faith, the Lion of the North, the terror of Austria, Gustavus the victorious."

This Lion of the North, it seems, was a very indifferent paymaster; for

"My lord," said Dalgetty, "I take it on my conscience, that at no period, and by no possible process, could one creutzer of my arrears ever be recovered. I myself never saw twenty dollars of my own all the time I served the invincible Gustavus, unless it was from the chance of a storm, or victory, or the fetching in some town or doorp, when a cavalier of fortune, who knows the usage of wars, seldom faileth to make some small profit."

From the Swedish service, the indefatigable champion of all causes retired to that of the Emperor, which is described at some length; and thence, continued he,

“ I exchanged my commission for one under the Spaniard.”

“ I hope you found yourself better off by the change ?” said Lord Menteith.

“ In good sooth,” answered the Ritt-master, “ I had but little to complain of. The pay was somewhat regular, being furnished by the rich Flemings and Walloons of the Low Country. The quarters were excellent; the good wheaten loaves of the Flemings were better than the Provant rye-bread of the Swede, and Rhenish wine was more plenty with us than ever I saw the black beer of Rostock in Gustavus’s camp. Service there was none, duty there was little; and that little we might do, or leave undone, at our pleasure; an excellent retirement for a cavalier somewhat weary of field and leaguer, who had purchased with his blood as much honour as might serve his turn, and was desirous of a little ease and good living.”

Here, however, he was ‘pricked in conscience respecting a matter of religion,’ and in consequence tried his fortune with the states of Holland, whose service is thus described :

“ So you again exchanged your service ?” said Lord Menteith.

“ In troth did I, my lord; and after trying for a short time two or three other powers, I even took on for a time with their High Mightinesses the States of Holland.”

“ And how did their service jump with your humour ?” again demanded his companion.

“ O ! my lord,” said the soldier in a sort of enthusiasm, “ their behaviour on pay-day might be a pattern to all Europe — no borrowings, no lendings, no offsets, no arrears, — all balanced and paid like a banker’s book. The quarters, too, are excellent, and the allowances unchallengeable; but then, sir, they are a precesse, scrupulous people, and will allow nothing for peca-dilloes. So that if a boor complains of a broken head, or a beer-seller of a broken can, or a daft wench does but squeak loud enough to be heard above her breath, a soldier of honour shall be dragged, not before his own court-martial, who can best judge of and punish his demerits, but before a base mechanical burgo-master, who shall menace him with the rasp-house, the cord, and what not, as if he were one of their own mean, amphibious, twenty-breeched boors. So, not being able to dwell longer among those ungrateful plebeians, who, although unable to defend themselves by their proper strength, will nevertheless allow the noble foreign cavalier who engages with them nothing beyond his dry wages, which no honourable spirit will put in competition with a liberal licence and honourable countenance, I resolved to leave the service of the Mynheers. And hearing at this time, to my exceeding satisfaction, that there is something to be doing *this summer in my way in this my dear native country, I am*
come

come hither, as they say, like a beggar to a bridal, in order to give my loving countrymen the advantage of that experience which I have acquired in foreign parts. So your Lordship has an outline of my brief story, excepting those passages of action in the field, in leaguers, storms, and onslaughts, whilk would be wearisome to narrate, and might, peradventure, better befit any other tongue than mine own."

Considerable humour is displayed in some of the discriminations which the Captain draws between the services of different nations. At last we find him engaged on the side of English royalty, in the war to which our present history relates; and a very fearless hardy partizan he becomes: although without the slightest preference for the cause which he embraces, or any determination to continue it, or even not to exchange to that of his enemies, when the allotted period of his service expires. The author has, on more occasions than one, drawn pedants of different descriptions, who are undoubtedly confined to no profession; and Captain Dalgetty, in addition to his other peculiarities, is his *military pedant*: a character which he sustains without imputation of failure, although with some fatigue to the reader, during the whole tale; so that we have once or twice wished, in the course of it, that he had arrived at the end of the stipulated service, for which the author engaged him, sooner than he did actually complete it.

ART. VIII. *On Diagnosis*. In Four Parts.—Part I. The Phenomena of Health and Disease.—Part II. The Diagnosis of the Diseases of Adults.—Part III. The Diagnosis of Local Diseases.—Part IV. The Diagnosis of the Diseases of Children. By Marshall Hall, M. D. Formerly Senior President of the Royal Medical Society, and Physician's Assistant, Royal Infirmary, Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 550. Longman and Co.

WE believe that Dr. Hall is a young practitioner, but that he has made good use of his time and opportunities: he seems to be active and industrious, earnestly bent on the improvement of his profession, and not restrained either by indolence or by diffidence from presenting his thoughts to the public. We have frequently seen his name in the periodical journals, and have traced his progress through his Edinburgh career to his present situation by the productions of his pen, which have always been deserving of attention, if not indicative of great genius. The task that he has now imposed on himself is, however, of a very different description from any of the former; requiring a far other state of mind, and

a much

a much greater degree of acquired knowledge, than the relation of a medical case, or the composition of a prize-essay. Its very size renders it formidable; and it argues either a consciousness of superior means, or a deficiency of information respecting the necessary requisites, to undertake that which has not been accomplished by the most learned or experienced of his predecessors.

The title-page sufficiently designates the general nature of the work, as well as the parts of which it consists: but the present volume contains only the first two; on the *Phænomena of Health and of Disease*, and the *Diagnosis of the Diseases of Adults*. In a preface, the author explains his views in the composition of it, and the objects which he proposes to himself in its farther prosecution. The science of medicine, he correctly remarks, consists in the study of disease and the investigation of remedies; while our knowledge of diseases depends on our acquaintance with their external characters, and their diagnosis, together with a knowledge of their pathology and prognosis. An accuracy of diagnosis necessarily implies a familiarity with external characters; although, in the one case, we regard these characters not so much in the light of mere matters of fact, as of circumstances which may point out minute shades of distinction between objects which bear a general resemblance to each other. We shall quote Dr. Hall's observations on the various points respecting *Diagnosis*, to which he more particularly intends to direct his attention; or rather, perhaps, the order in which they are brought to our view.

‘*Diagnosis is general and particular.*—The general *Diagnosis* comprises several important points to which particular attention has been paid in the ensuing pages. First, the distinction between symptoms and diseases has been every where pointed out with all possible care; and when we consider how often the symptom has been treated for the disease, the importance of this diagnosis becomes sufficiently manifest. The second general *Diagnosis* relates to the distinction between idiopathic and symptomatic fevers, and may be aptly compared to the general diagnosis just mentioned. To this point also particular attention has been paid in this work. The third general *Diagnosis* flows from the one last mentioned, and consists in the discrimination of idiopathic fever with topical affection, and local inflammation with symptomatic fever. The fourth general *Diagnosis* applies to local inflammations, and local pains not of an inflammatory nature. The fifth general *Diagnosis* comprises the primary topical affections, and local affections from disorder of the digestive organs. The sixth general *Diagnosis*, certainly one of the greatest importance, traces the distinction between chronic disorder of function, and organic disease. The seventh general *Diagnosis* flows from some of the former, and
traces

traces the transitions from spasmodic into inflammatory pain, and from disorder of function into organic affection. Particular Diagnosis consists in the distinction of each particular disease from every other, and constitutes that with which alone the physician ought to be satisfied.'

We have presented this passage to our readers as affording them an insight into the nature of the work, which may enable them to understand and judge of its merits, and likewise as illustrative of the mode of arrangement which prevails in other parts of it: but we shall not dwell longer on the preface, because the remainder of it does not contain any observations which are either in themselves particularly striking, or which tend to throw light on what is to follow.

The first part, on 'the Phænomena of Health and the Symptoms of Disease,' may be considered as, in a certain degree, preparatory to the remaining portions; on the principle that a knowledge of the healthy state of the corporeal frame, and of its general deviations from this state, must be acquired before we can make ourselves acquainted with those deviations from health which constitute particular diseases. We think that this arrangement is rather plausible than actually correct, and that the same argument might be urged in favour of giving a complete system of physiology and of anatomy. This is the age of minute research; in which, it seems, we are to hope to improve the state of knowledge rather by perfecting its individual parts, than by aiming at general systems. It will, however, be seen that our strictures apply only partially to the first division of the author's work; for that many of the remarks contained in it would have come more naturally in one of the following departments.

After some preliminary observations, which are generally sensible, but not always very interesting or very important, the matter of the first part is arranged in nine sections; viz. of the Countenance in Health and Disease; of the Tongue; of the Attitude in Health and Disease; of the external Surface in Health and Disease; of the Functions of the Head in Health and Disease; of the Functions of the Thorax in Health and Disease; of the alimentary Canal; of the Functions of the urinary and uterine Systems; and of the external Form in Health and Disease. The book is written in the aphoristic form, consisting of a series of general facts or propositions, regularly numbered, and printed in a large type; to which are appended, in a smaller character, illustrations and amplifications of the matter contained in the propositions. This plan has its convenience, and is useful in books principally designed for reference: but it is apt to give to a

work a deceptive appearance of accuracy which it may not really possess. Arrangement, indeed, may be said to be Dr. Hall's polar star, the object to which he seems always to direct his attention, and on which his success must depend as a pathologist. Of this characteristic, we shall give our readers some specimens. With respect to the Tongue, we are told that the circumstances to be noticed are,

' 1. Its Moisture or Dryness, 1. General. 2. Partial. — 2. Its being with or without Fur. — 3. Its being clean or loaded, 1. Generally. 2. Partially. — 4. Its being swollen and indented. — 5. The Enlargement or Disappearance of its Papillæ. — 6. Its Colour. — 7. Its Mode of being protruded. — 8. The internal Mouth in general. — 9. The Taste. — 10. The Breath.'

The section on the Tongue is then divided into three parts; in which are respectively considered its state in fevers, and in disorders of the digestive organs; and, lastly, we have a series of miscellaneous observations on this membrane. In the section on the Attitude in Disease, the following points are considered :

' 1. The Position. — 2. The Changes of Position. — 3. The Caution observed in moving, or — 4. The opposite State of Writhing, or of Jactitation. — 5. The State or the Effects of muscular Action. — 6. The State of muscular Power or Debility. — 7. The Manner.'

This section is subdivided into five parts; the attitude in fevers; in diseases of the head; in diseases of the chest; in diseases of the heart; and, lastly, in diseases of the abdomen. We quote the remarks on the heart, as they relate to a malady which has lately been much noticed, and the diagnosis of which is allowed to be obscure :

' 1. In incipient and dubious cases of disease of the heart in general, the diagnosis is assisted by observing the effect of muscular exertion on the other symptoms, especially such as involves much change of position or general motion of the body. On suddenly rising up or lying down, on walking rapidly, on mounting a hill, or set of stairs, or meeting the wind, an aggravation of all the symptoms is experienced with great dyspnœa and generally with palpitation.

' 2. Gradually the sufferings of the patient in disease of the heart become still more acute; a certain restlessness, an appearance of anxiety, an evident tumult in the circulation, and a peculiar dyspnœa, give a character to the external form of the disease, which distinguishes it from the appearances in oppression from hydrothorax. Every motion or muscular effort is borne with great difficulty, and the symptoms of the disease are much aggravated; in hydrothorax, muscular motion in general induces much less inconvenience.

' 3. In

‘ 3. In a still more aggravated form of the disease, the patient requires to be raised in bed more and more, until the erect posture, or even a posture *inclined* upon the thighs, becomes requisite. A further aggravation of this symptom consists in an inability to sit erect even while the lower extremities are placed horizontally; the patient is obliged perhaps to sit on the side of the bed, with the legs hanging down and the feet on the floor. The night as well as day is sometimes spent sitting up in a chair near the fire, sometimes with the head placed on a low table, and the body leaning considerably forwards. In this stage of the complaint there is an inexpressible restlessness and anxiety.

‘ 4. At any period of disease of the heart, a sudden change of posture from the horizontal to the erect, frequently becomes necessary during sleep, from the aggravation of symptoms and general agitation produced by a turbulent dream. This M. Corvisart considers as exclusively observed in diseases of the heart.

‘ 5. When there is no supervention of hydrothorax, the general appearance and attitude of the patient in diseases of the heart, are therefore very different from those described and elucidated §§ 146, 147. In the case of hydrothorax consecutive to disease of the heart, the characters of the two diseases are of course mutually combined and modified.’

We conceive this to be a fair specimen of the manner and matter of the book; the observations are good, and perhaps unobjectionable: but they display no distinguished acuteness; and, as in this particular case, so in many others, they are too general. The above statement may be deemed a good account of the symptoms of a disease of the heart, but have no very direct relation to attitude. We may observe, as we proceed through the work, that we consider the remarks on the Pulse, certainly a most important instrument of diagnosis, as common-place and unsatisfactory.

Part II. On the Diagnosis of the Diseases of the Adult. The separation which Dr. Hall makes of the diseases of adults from those of children, and also from those that are called local, — although, at least in the former case, it might be useful in practice, — can scarcely be admissible in an inquiry into the general form and nature of disease. As, however, the third and fourth parts, in which the local diseases and the diseases of children are to be considered, are not yet published, (or have not reached us,) we ought perhaps for the present to suspend our remarks on the propriety of this arrangement. In treating on the diagnosis of diseases, Dr. Hall is necessarily led to form a nosological arrangement of them; and he adopts one which is in some measure novel, and peculiar to himself. The diseases are divided into nine sections; Fevers and febrile Affections; febrile cutaneous

Diseases; Disorders of the digestive Organs and the nervous Affections; Diseases of the Head; of the Thorax; of the Abdomen; of the lumbar and hypogastric Regions; Tumours of the Abdomen; and, lastly, painful, paralytic, and spasmodic Diseases. If we were to regard this as a mere classification of diseases, formed for the purpose of throwing any light on their nature or their treatment, we should conceive it to be very objectionable: but it must be acknowledged that these rules may not strictly apply in the present case, where diagnosis is the only object. We will examine his third division, which immediately follows the febrile diseases; viz. those of the digestive organs; to which, as it appears rather singularly, are appended nervous affections. He first arranges the diseases of the digestive organs into three sections, as they occur in early youth, in adult age, and in advanced age; and again he subdivides the first and second, according as the affection is acute or chronic. The first two forms of the gastric diseases, as they occur in early youth, are those which have been called infantile fever or worm-fever, when acute; and marasmus, when in the more chronic state. Each of these forms is very minutely described: but, whether the description be taken from nature or transcribed from books, or rather perhaps founded on observation or reading, and filled up from the imagination or from theory, we shall not venture to decide; though we rather suspect the latter to be the case. The following description of the chronic variety does not present to our minds the resemblance of any generic form of disease; and, as far as we are enabled to trace it to any actual occurrence, we should refer it to a later period of life than Dr. Hall has assigned to it:

‘ Chronic disorder of the digestive organs, in early youth, is characterized by paleness of the countenance, which sometimes acquires the colour of light tea-paper, and sometimes a leaden hue; a slight flush is often observed on the cheeks; the eye-lids become occupied by a ring of a darkish brown colour. The upper lip is sometimes tumid, and both exanguious and pale. The pupils are often large. The tongue loses its load, and is sometimes remarkably smooth and clean; and the breath is no longer tainted. There is a general appearance of feebleness and of the invalid. The patient is irritable, listless, and draws near the fire, so as sometimes to burn the back of the hands until they become brown. The arms, and hands, the body, and limbs in general, become much emaciated, a change which is not so manifest in the countenance. The skin is dry, and shrivelled; sometimes there is an irregular cold perspiration. The ankles swell in the latter stage of the disease. The head is generally less affected

affected than in the acute forms of this affection. The pulse is frequent. There is often pain in the abdomen, and frequently diarrhœa. There is little appetite, but the patient is apt to become fond of some particular article of food, as pickles, cheese, &c.'

That the functions of the digestive organs are pre-eminent in their influence over the whole of the corporeal frame is universally admitted: but the current of opinion sets so strongly in this direction, that there is danger of its carrying every thing before it in its course. In treating on diagnosis, our prime object should be rather to point out those circumstances in which diseases differ, than those in which they agree; and the more nearly they resemble each other in their general character, or even in their cause and origin, so much the more necessary is it to exercise this discriminative accuracy. Of this caution, we conceive, Dr. Hall's method of proceeding points out the necessity; for, in the section now before us, we have a system of almost all the diseases to which the human frame is incident, and we certainly perceive a want of those means of distinguishing between them which it was the professed object of this work to furnish. Why the nervous and gastric diseases should be placed in the same class, we are unable to determine: for in general they are perfectly distinct, both in their symptoms and their origin. With regard to hysteria, under which denomination the author places the greatest number of what he styles nervous diseases, we have a rather ample detail of its symptoms when it exists in its ordinary form, and afterward an enumeration of the varieties to which it is subject: they amount to thirty; and, like the modifications or varieties of the former class of diseases, they comprehend affections of almost every kind to which the body is incident, but without the means being pointed out by which the specific cases can be discriminated.

As a farther specimen of Dr. Hall's manner of writing, we shall make one or two more quotations; and, in selecting them, we shall be guided principally by their brevity.

'The puerperal convulsion usually takes place during labour. The countenance becomes distorted in an extreme degree, and often in a most horrible manner. The limbs are convulsed in different ways. The respiration seems choaked and interrupted; the patient's face assumes a livid colour; there is foaming at the mouth;—at length the movements of respiration gradually return; the patient remains for a time in a state of stupor; but, after the first fits, generally recovers, remaining unconscious of the attack. — The convulsion again returns as before, but assumes

a more

a more dreadful form; is longer continued, and terminates perhaps in a state of continued coma. — The pulse becomes frequent. The pupils remain dilated.' —

'Chorea Sancti Viti usually begins in an insidious manner, being generally preceded by some symptoms of disorder of the digestive organs, § 72. Then some twitching and involuntary motions of the countenance, and a defective and irregular mode of moving the limbs, are observed. Articulation becomes imperfect and stammering. The limbs and trunk at length become affected with frequent involuntary movements: the arms cannot be held still, nor yet directed by the will; the legs are affected in a similar manner; the countenance of the patient is continually distorted, and the limbs are constantly performing some singular gesticulation. — At a late stage the mind seems to suffer, and the muscles to lose their power of contraction. — In some cases of long duration, there have also been most of the symptoms noticed, § 73. This affection is apt to be protracted for some time.

'Chorea Sancti Viti usually affects boys and girls about the age of twelve or fourteen years; but it has occurred at eight, and at sixteen.'

An important part of the performance still remains to be noticed. At the end, the author has arranged all the facts contained in the book in the form of tables, in which the different symptoms are placed in separate columns; so that by a glance of the eye, it is supposed, we can discriminate between any morbid affection and those with which it is the most likely to be confounded. The tables are eight in number, and each contains 50 columns, comprehending the various circumstances connected with the history of the disease, its effect on the several functions, organs, parts of the body, &c. Whether these tables will prove to be actually of the use that is assigned to them by the author, we think is very doubtful: but we are of opinion that they might be serviceable to a medical man in classing the cases that fall under his management, and in arranging their symptoms and the effect of remedies on them, so as to generalize his experience and deduce principles from single facts. We apprehend that the science of medicine would have advanced with a much more rapid and uniform progress, had practitioners adopted the plan of publishing fewer detached cases, which often shew the peculiarities of the animal economy rather than afford any insight into its established laws.

To conclude our remarks, we must give Dr. Hall great credit for the boldness of his enterprize, and for the quantity of diligence which he must have bestowed on its execution: but we fear that it must, on the whole, be regarded as unsuccessful, or at least as too deficient in its execution to

answer

answer the purpose for which he himself designed it. Its radical error is that Dr. Hall has endeavoured to accomplish, at the outset of his professional career, a task which he should have reserved for its termination, or for a very advanced period of it. He might have formed his plan and drawn up his tables; and then, after having occupied a series of years in perfecting the one and filling up the other, he might, with great probability of advantage, have given to the world the result of his labours in a well digested and methodized system. In various passages, he manifests a spirit of candour which induces us to believe that, if these remarks attract his notice, he will receive them in good part: we assure him that, if we criticize him, it is for the purpose of directing his exertions into what we conceive to be a more suitable path, not to repress or restrain them; and, if we object to his volume, it is because he has undertaken a task in which it was impossible that a person circumstanced as he is could entirely succeed.

ART. IX. *The Stage: a Poem*. By John Brown, the Author of "Psyche." 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Souter. 1819.

WE are glad to hail a wonderful improvement in Mr. John Brown. His Poem of "Psyche" (see M.R. vol. lxxxvii. p. 325.) little prepared us for any thing approaching to correct versification or vigorous expression in the same author: but, with all the remaining faults of Mr. Brown, some of which are in a "high state of preservation" in the present little volume, he has here displayed much good taste in stage-matters, and considerable force of satire in ridiculing what he conceives to be wrong. Doubtless, he often carries his opinions to a peculiar length, and so far that he will find few, if any, dramatic critics to coincide with him. Yet, on the whole, his observations agree with our own recollections; and, therefore, we cannot be supposed to differ widely from him on the main points of theatrical judgment.

The poem is addressed to Mr. Farren the actor; to whom much good advice is given, intended to guide him in the exercise of his profession. Perhaps all our readers will not concur with us in approving the following opinion of Mr. Brown, that it is wise in an actor not to hope for the extraordinary double fame of Garrick, both in tragedy and comedy, but, on the contrary, to make his election, according to his prevailing bent, (and, without such a bent, excellence is surely unattainable in either the sock or buskin,) and to adhere

steadily to his chosen line of characters, admitting the utmost practicable variety within that line :

‘ In one department steadily appear,
Shake us with laughter, or enforce the tear.
Whichever you pursue at first — success
In that, must make your second chance the less :
Accustom'd modes of attitude or air
Give to the mind some character you were ;
Our recollection proves your direst foe,
And makes you comical amidst your woe ;
When in the suitor, or the injur'd chief,
You melt with soft, or rave with maddening grief ;
The audience vow, with laughter overcome,
You weep like Noodle, or you storm like Thumb :
The Hamlet of to-night is half the gay
And gallant Falconbridge of yesterday ;
Octavian (sketch'd with energy and skill)
In pity we attend from ill to ill ;
Half-pleas'd to doubt, amidst the harrowing scene,
If so much wretchedness has ever been ;
Each sad lament that issues from his lip
Still closer knits the band of fellowship ;
Who will not weep if such a man there be ?
Who will not smile if honest Liston's he ?
When every feature, every action shows
The gay Lord Grizzle in Octavian's clothes !’

In satirical verse, the sort of rhyme with which the last couplet of this extract closes may be *occasionally* admissible : but we must warn even the satirist against the too free use of his licence. *Talk and cork, war and law, gait and trait, cross and horse*, are specimens of Mr. Brown's libertinism of rhyme, which we cannot suffer to pass unreprieved. Far more deserving of censure, however, is that grossness which still clings to his pages ; and which makes his muse much more corporeal than ætherial, and partake much more largely of the *σωμα* than the *Ψυχη*, notwithstanding his favourite *Psyche*. — The passage to which we allude occurs at p. 22.

Among the numerous subjects of histrionic reprehension, on which this author seems to delight to dwell, the faults of Mr. Kean, and of Miss O'Neil herself, do not escape his notice. Although the subjoined censure will be considered as too severe, and no doubt is so, many impartial persons will agree that there is *something* in it :

‘ This the great fault of our theatric times,
Whether we represent flagitious crimes,
Or fierce calamities, or comic whims,
The whole is imagin'd forth by dint of limbs :

Stupidity

Stupidity exhibits dumb despair —
 To act a violent, we pull our hair!
 The stage's mirth is a distorted face,
 A shrug its terror, and its woe grimace.
 Imagination paints the heart-struck wife
 In Belvidera to the very life;
 With beauty, youth, and innocence, array'd,
 Thy sweet creation, Otway, stands display'd;
 Then all that thou would'st have us feel, we feel;
 But, when the part is *done* by Miss O'Neil,
 Our fancy loses by the aid of sight,
 For Belvidera's grown a Bedlamite!
 This new misfortune saddens not, but cheers, —
 Our cambric kerchiefs wipe away our tears:
 And whining languid sympathy we add,
 "Shocking indeed, but Heaven be thank'd *she's mad.*"
 Change name and sex of Kean, the tale is told,
 With firmer muscles and a rougher mould, —
 He too thinks tragic excellence consists
 In leaping pangs and apoplectic twists.
 Some seem to take preposterous delight
 In Kean's conception of the fraudulent knight:
 Yet, tell me, does ambition and chagrin
 Perturb his mind, or only move his mien?
 To look aghast, or tumble in among
 His half-scar'd lackeys to protrude his tongue;
 To snort, to leer, to drivel, and to scream,
 Is not so difficult as it may seem, —
 The jointed doll of an expert mechanic
 Will look aslant, and start with sudden panic; —
 If to clench both the fists, and wildly grin,
 Be tragic greatness — what is harlequin?"

Some happy similes occur in this poem:

' An actor's playing, like an author's style,
 Cannot be copied, if it be not vile.
 Sterne's breaks and stars set servile souls to work,
 But who has mimick'd Addison or Burke?
 As these have charms to which no eye is blind,
 Tho' far too delicate to be defin'd;
 So a good actor will an audience please
 By strokes which all discern, tho' none can seize;
 At his command we sorrow or we smile
 By undivulg'd enchantment — as the Nile
 On ev'ry field fertility bestows,
 Tho' known to none the fountain whence it flows.'

Good sense also marks the following passage:

' The wildest fancy of the wildest bard
 Should ne'er beget a lawless disregard
 Of possibility, — one inch advance,
 You change to folly fine extravagance.

Too much of monster, not enough of man,
 Makes a nonentity of Caliban;
 But represent him as the poet wrought,
 Original in action, language, thought,
 The fellow-creature we discover still,
 And, struck with wonder at the author's skill,
 Ask, as we dwell enchanted o'er the scene,
 If this thing be not, might it not have been?"

Several *hits* in the above extracts would not have disgraced Churchill. Perhaps, indeed, some of them may be considered as anticipated by that nervous though imperfect satirist.

In the subjoined sentiment we entirely agree. Nothing but the unbounded buffoonery of the present times could have sanctioned such an outrage on dramatic propriety.

' Our Shakespear's sacred characters should give
 A shelter to their representative :
 Curse on the merry-Andrew who derides
 King Lear or John thro' Kean or Kemble's sides.'

How can an author, who advocates the cause of decorum and good taste in writing as well as in representing, degrade his consistency by such a vulgar illustration as the subjoined?

' The grief of Brutus, and Othello's grief,
 No more resemble, than Welsh mutton beef.'

This is in the style of the worst and idlest nonsense of "Psyche;" — and when Mr. Brown talks so familiarly about *Æschylus* and *Plautus*, and praises their several singleness of design, he would do well to explain himself a little more plainly and clearly, and not incur the imputation of using the names of the antients, without any very just discrimination of their respective merits.

Why is *Posthūmus* called *Posthūmus*?

The praise of Kemble is an animated and generally correct delineation : but such extreme panegyric is hardly compatible with the censure bestowed on particular faults of that great actor, in another part of the work.

We conclude with a very pleasing though too high-flown compliment to the merits of Miss Brunton.

' It is in quantity, and not in kind,
 A man should differ from a woman's mind ;
 Of ev'ry virtue, lovely in the fair,
 The other sex should doubtless have a share.
 If over Brunton's acting — soft alarm
 Can spread an unimaginable charm,
 Would Conway's countenance and giant mould
 Delight us less — less impudently bold ?

But

But turn my Muse from his enormous frame,
Delighted turn thee back to Brunton's name;
Art thou, like Southey, gifted to condense
In one brief phrase a volume of fine sense?
Not so, indeed — then why attempt to fix
All Brunton's merits in two hemistics?
Without departure from the writer's text,
She plays so nat'rally — so unperplex'd;
'Tis scarcely just to say she represents,
Genius in ev'ry action — she invents;
For, as a well-shap'd garment gains and bears
The conformation of the man that wears,
So Brunton, on the part she plays, confers
A thousand charms originally hers;
Yet, with such art the whole is interweav'd
With what the author wove, 'tis his believ'd;
Or, if remembrance that mistake prevent,
We think he left it out by accident.
Those little traits delight us and disperse
Too evanescent to be chain'd in verse,
Too subtle for the mem'ry to retain, —
Would we describe, she must create again.
Sense here surpasses soul — alone by seeing,
We credit charms so fine can have a being:
A glance — a movement scarcely made — a tone,
Combine to make her portraits all her own!
And, rigorously right, she yet can quote
With finer meaning than her author wrote; —
Playful her merriment, altho' serene,
Her sorrow solemn, whilst devoid of spleen, —
Lithe as a sylph, majestic as a grace,
She, without motion, seems to change her place;
Her speaking mien so shows the mind within,
We almost think her soul is on her skin,
As vases, polish'd exquisitely white,
Appear to be when they but hold the light:
With skill that each competitor outstrips,
And forces praise from every rival's lips,
She seems to feel more timid by applause,
And, all delighting, bashfully withdraws.
The modesty of fools grows less and less,
That of the able, greater by success;
As summer's still progressive warmth bestows
A deeper blush upon the blooming rose.
Methinks the voice of malice, with a sneer,
Exclaims, "and so we have perfection here!"
No; she is not perfection — find me words
Of censure gentle as the song of birds;
More flexible than the gnat's translucent wing,
More filmy than the morning dew of spring;

More

More unsubstantial than the violets sweet,
 More printless than a dancing fairy's feet ; —
 So gift my Muse, and language shall express
 The shadowy faults that prove her to be less.'

In this passage the author has been very happy in some of his illustrations, but has admitted several execrable lines ; — for instance :

' She plays so *nat'rally*, so unperplex'd.'

What will Mr. Southey think of the severe irony of complimenting his diffuse *prosy* style with the character of pregnant conciseness ? We do not remember a stronger example of the unintentional insult of flattery.

' Art thou, *like Southey*, gifted to condense
 In one *brief* phrase a volume of fine sense ?'

ART. X. *The Patriot Father*, a Play in Five Acts ; freely translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue, by Frederic Shoberl. 8vo. pp. 99. Printed at Truro. 1819.

THE frightful and pitiable fate of Kotzebue throws an additional interest round the productions of his pen, even with those who were never among his ardent admirers, or have never thought very highly of any of his brother-dramatists of the German school. Rare and extravagant incidents, violent and often distorted passions, affected sensibility and irregular morals, have indeed formed the ground-work of too many of their plays ; while the super-structure is largely disfigured with the ornaments of a vicious taste, a bombastic tumour of imagination, or a servile and indiscriminate copying *after nature*. Mr. Shoberl, however, endeavours, as in duty bound, to oppose the tide of censure which so justly, and so honourably to our English feeling, sets against the faulty characteristics of the German drama ; and he asserts that it would be as fair to condemn the British theatre from the occasional indecencies of Shakspeare or Congreve, as the stage of Germany for the immorality of some of its plays.

In this parallel, Mr. Shoberl forgets two things. First, that there is *no* comparison between the evil of improper *passages*, which can be and are omitted in representation, and the unprincipled construction of a whole drama ; in which the audience is called to feel a dangerous and even a destructive sympathy with an illustrious Adulteress, or an admiration incompatible with common honesty, excited by the *virtues* of a Robber ! This question may therefore be considered as decisively

visively settled; — and, in the second place, Mr. Shoberl should remember that it is not for immorality *only*, but for extreme folly, and the utmost barbarism of taste also, that we arraign the German theatre. Until our countrymen are disposed to swallow such a *German puff* as Madame de Staël's panegyric on the play of Dr. Faustus *, we trust that we shall be countenanced in such an arraignment.

Certainly, the present drama is not well calculated to alter our opinions. It is founded on the improbable incident of the children of Naumburg being sent out, by their parents, to deprecate the wrath of the Bohemian avengers of the murder of the Reformer Huss. In this *natural* embassy, the children *as naturally* advance on the presented spears of the soldiers, who retreat in pity from them, after having thus expressed themselves on the subject of compassion :

* *Second Officer.*

Well said! when bloated priests broil in the flames,
Or children's skulls against the bloody pavement
Are dash'd, then other tones salute the ear.'

This is in the true *raw head, and bloody-bone* manner of Germany.

We cannot compliment the translator on his poetic style. Though at times energetic enough, (as we have just seen!) he is generally tame and prosaic, and often familiar to vulgarity. For instance :

The more I think, the more improbable
The story seems to me ;'

which, we should conceive, was intended as a candid character of the plot of ' *The Patriot Father*.'

Ye've heard how late there liv'd at Prague a man,
Nam'd Huss.' —

" There lived a man in Ballin O'Crazy," &c. &c. ;

" And have ye not heard of a jolly young waterman ;"

seem to us much in the same dignified manner as the above.

' *Worshipful Sir, a sweet presentiment,*' &c. &c.

' O *chicken-hearted* counsellors,' &c.

At pages 64, 65. we have stage-directions of a length unusual even in Germany. The actor is taught how to arrange every portion of his animal economy. In this scene, the heroine *sinks* first on the stage; secondly, into her

* See that lively but often superficial writer's third volume of "*Allemagne*."

husband's arms; thirdly, from his arms, on a bench before the house; fourthly, again into her husband's arms; 'who places her upon the ground, reclining against the bench.' If this be not a lesson in the *Art of Sinking*, we know not where to look for it.

The *trick* which is played off in "*Pizarro*," where the centinel suffers Rolla to go into the prison because he talks about his (*supposed*) wife and children, is here practised again on a rude Bohemian General, flushed with conquest, and thirsting for revenge.

"*Quodcumque ostendis mihi sic, incredulus odi,*"

we are convinced that every Englishman, whose native sense has not been sicklied o'er with German sensibility, will here be ready to feel or to exclaim with Horace. We select two of the best passages in the translation, — the one descriptive, the other declamatory :

' Scarce had I scaled the heights, when suddenly
The Hussite camp appear'd stretch'd out before me.
Like fretful waves impatient of restraint,
Their dusky legions gird the mountain's base;
But their chief force upon the southern hill
Is posted — and ten thousand busy hands
Labour with works of art to fortify
The steep ascent, already strong by nature.
There a white tent, crown'd with a blood-red dome,
Rears high its haughty head above the rest;
O'er it the standard of the ruthless foe —
A golden goblet in an argent field —
Flouts the air proudly. The Bohemian General
Here keeps his martial state. Through the long files
Of taunting guards, all men of hideous aspect,
With cheeks embrown'd, and grisly, matted beards,
Distain'd by blood and dust, was I conducted
Into the leader's presence. —
He sat surrounded by his officers,
While the grim executioner behind him
Brandish'd the gleaming axe as I approach'd.
"Why, wretch fool-hardy" — thus began Procopius,
"What urges thee first of thy race to brave
The jaws of death?"'

The next is a spirited passage; — somewhat perhaps too ostentatiously vigorous, but very well :

' *First Senator.*

' Heav'n and hell!
What? on our bosoms shall we fold our hands,
And gaze for miracles? — no — no — to arms!

Now ev'ry hope is vanish'd show ye're men!
 The resolution of despair gives strength
 And oft works prodigies. Let us not heed
 The coward counsel doting age suggests,
 Whose snows each spark of courage have extinguish'd.
 Haste to the ramparts, then, brave men of Naumburg,
 Prepare for battle — not for paltry plunder,
 'Tis for our homes and families we fight!
 That Pow'r who nerv'd a stripling's arm and heart
 To meet a giant's force still lives. Though fiends
 Num'rous as ocean sands beset you round,
 His hand can hurl destruction on their ranks
 And blast their purposes. Away! Away!
 Quick, carry fuel to the city walls,
 Prepare your cauldrons, and of liquid pitch
 Pour fiery torrents on th' audacious foe;
 And let your wives and children straight collect
 Large store of stones to launch upon their heads.
 Snatch up what arms ye find — clubs — battle-axes,
 Nay let the pitch-fork, sickle, flail, and scythe
 Be in your vigorous hands death-dealing tools!
 Now to the ramparts! — should your spirits flag,
 Think that your fathers, mothers, children, wives,
 Your sweethearts, home and country, life itself,
 Are the dear stake ye fight for!

“ *Credite pendentes ex ipsis mœnibus urbis,
 Crinibus effusus hortari ad prælia matres,*”

as the hero in Lucan addresses his army: — but we do not recollect that he mentions their *sweethearts*, to animate the soldiers.

One of the prominent faults of this play, after the original error of the design, is the frequent and lengthened narration: but we have already bestowed more time and space on it than any thing belonging to so moderate a performance can properly deserve. We trust that there is no chance of the German mania reviving in our literature; and, perhaps, one of the most effectual modes of preventing that undeniable relapse is the publication of such imperfect specimens of the dramatic art as ‘The Patriot Father.’

ART. XI. *Peter Bell*, a Tale in Verse. By William Wordsworth. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co. 1819.

THIS infantine pamphlet is dedicated to Robert Southey, Esq. P. L. or Poet Laureate, by William Wordsworth, Esq. L. P. or Lake Poet. It is, in truth, “a right merry and conceited” small production; worthy of the bard to whom it

is offered, and worthy of him also by whom it is produced. All past, present, and (probably) future performances, by the same author, must sink into nothing before Peter Bell. No lisping was ever more distinctly lisped than the versification of this poem; and no folly was ever more foolishly boasted than that of the writer, whether in style or subject-matter. The former is the style of Mr. Newbery's best gilded little volumes for nurseries; the latter is a subject for any of the Cheap Repository Tracts, intended for the reformation of the lowest of the lower orders.

With this brief but sufficient preface, we introduce Peter Bell and his poet to our readers :

- ' — A potter, Sir, he was by trade,
Said I, becoming quite collected;
And, wheresoever he appeared,
Full twenty times was Peter feared
For once that Peter was respected.
- ' He two-and-thirty years or more
Had been a wild and woodland rover;
Had heard the Atlantic surges roar
On farthest Cornwall's rocky shore,
And trod the cliffs of Dover.
- ' And he had seen Caernarvon's towers,
And well he knew the spire of Sarum;
And he had been where Lincoln bell
Flings o'er the fen its ponderous knell,
Its far-renowned alarum!
- ' At Doncaster, at York, and Leeds,
And merry Carlisle had he been;
And all along the Lowlands fair,
All through the bonny shire of Ayr —
And far as Aberdeen.
- ' And he had been at Inverness;
And Peter, by the mountain rills,
Had danced his round with Highland lasses;
And he had lain beside his asses
On lofty Cheviot Hills:
- ' And he had trudg'd through Yorkshire dales,
Among the rocks and winding *scars*;
Where deep and low the hamlets lie
Beneath their little patch of sky
And little lot of stars:
- ' And all along the indented coast,
Bespattered with the salt-sea foam;
Where'er a knot of houses lay,
On headland, or in hollow bay: —
'Sure never man like him did roam!'

Can Englishmen write, and Englishmen read, such drivel,
— such daudling, impotent drivel, — as this !

“ Oh were not all Rome's ancient vigour fled,
Could such lines *gender* in a Roman head ?”

(*Persius, by Brewster.*)

as we must for ever ask our degenerate, our unblushing countrymen. Weak indeed must be the mind that, by any process of sophistry, or long practice of patience, can be reconciled to the aforesaid drivel. We feel the force of custom to be *almost* omnipotent: but, however *dulled* and *deadened* our sense of propriety, our sense of poetry, or sense of every kind may have been by the eternal repetition of similar imbecilities, we *should* have thought that, until the very brains were extracted, no head could hold such unmeaning prittle-prattle as the above; — no tongue, we *are* persuaded, tied by the thinnest silk of shame, would ever have poured it forth. — We really waste *words*, however, on what is scarcely *Word's-worth*; and, suffering this infatuated poetaster to condemn himself out of his own mouth, we shall intersperse very few farther remarks with his modicums of matchless vanity.

Some well-meaning, and, in one case, witty individuals have published parodies of *Peter Bell*, the potter, and of his brother, the Waggoner. We shall be required briefly to notice these parodies, as well as their originals: but in fact the originals themselves are the parodies, or rather the gross burlesques of all that is good in poetry. It is like travestying Cotton's *Travesties of Homer and Virgil*, to parody Wordsworth's own parodies of other illustrious poets. Nay, he is the buffoon of Nature herself; and, by lowering her grand and general associations of physical and moral beauty into petty pastry-cook details of fruit and flowers, he presents to some a *ludicrous*, and to all an *unfaithful* portrait of his pretended original. We say pretended; for in fact it is not Nature, but his own narrow, whimsical, unpoetical idea of Nature, which this strange writer worships. It is, however, true that rays of reason escape through these hallucinations; as for instance:

‘ Dread Spirits ! to torment the good
Why wander from your course so far,
Disordering colour, form, and stature !
— Let good men feel the soul of Nature,
And see things as they are.

‘ I know you, potent Spirits ! well,
How with the feeling and the sense

E c 3

Flaying.

Playing, ye govern foes or friends,
Yok'd to your will, for fearful ends —
And this I speak in reverence !

' But might I give advice to you,
Whom in my fear I love so well,
From men of pensive virtue go,
Dread beings ! and your empire show
On hearts like that of Peter Bell.

' Your presence I have often felt
In darkness and the stormy night ;
And well I know, if need there be,
Ye can put forth your agency
When earth is calm, and heaven is bright.

' Then coming from the wayward world,
That powerful world in which ye dwell,
Come, Spirits of the mind ! and try
To-night, beneath the moonlight sky,
What may be done with Peter Bell !'

Yet what is all this about ? About a man who was reading in his room at midnight, when all grew suddenly dark, and on the paper, in letters of light, was formed a *word*—*too* something or other to be mentioned !!! Oh dear ! Oh dear ! and this is written for full-grown men and women ! We can only say that, if a nurse were to talk to any of their children in this manner, a sensible father and mother would be strongly disposed to dismiss her without a character.

Peter sees a number of strange things in the water, the product of his own guilty fancy ; like the faces on the trees in the wooden tail-pieces in Bewick's *Quadrupeds*. Among other scenes is the following :

' Is it a party in a parlour ?
Cramm'd just as they on earth were cramm'd —
Some sipping punch, some sipping tea,
But, as you by their faces see,
All silent and all damn'd !'

Fie, fie, Mr. Wordsworth ! *

ART. XII. *Peter Bell*. A Lyrical Ballad. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Taylor and Hessey. 1819.

THIS would be a good burlesque of an author less ridiculous than the original of the present and several similar parodies, were not Wordsworth himself " the great ab-

* We are compelled, with regret, to announce that Mr. W.'s *Waggon* having broken down on the road, the *Waggoner* is recommended for examination till the next month.

surd"

surd" they draw. Nothing can be added to or taken away from the gross caricature of this author's *simplicity*. "I do affirm that I am the real Simon Pure," says the Parodist, (quoting from the "*Bold Stroke for a Wife*"). 'I am the man,' replies Mr. Wordsworth, in a thousand eloquent stanzas: but we have considered the pretensions of Mr. W. in preceding articles; and we are now to appreciate the merits of his unnecessary mimics.

The present 'Peter Bell' has the merit of brevity; — brevity, at least, comparative: — but, as we have before intimated, there is a most superfluous extravagance in the imitation of Mr. W.'s manner; which admits of *no* caricature; for as, according to the *fundamental* axiom, two bodies of like natures cannot be in the same place at once, so can there not be a poem of Mr. Wordsworth, and a caricature, on the same subject.

Ecce signum.

Hark! the church-yard brook is singing
Its evening song amid the leaves;
And the peering moon doth look
Sweetly on that singing brook,
Round and sad as though it grieves. *Peter Bell.*

But which Peter Bell? — We leave our readers to answer the question.

Some of the burlesque that follows is *funny enough*:

'What a sexton's work is here,
Lord! the idiot boy is gone;
And Barbara Lewthwaite's fate the same,
And cold as mutton is her lamb;
And Alice Tell is bone by bone.'

This is a consummation devoutly to be wished, and which, no doubt, a very few seasons will effect. Would that we might with equal confidence anticipate the verification of the following old joke, applied to the poetical existence of the author himself:

— "Here lieth W. W.

Who never more will trouble you, trouble you."

ART. XIII. *The Carib Chief: a Tragedy in Five Acts.* By Horace Twiss, Esq. Third Edition. 8vo. 3s. Longman and Co. 1819.

WE have no doubt that, when compared with its contemporaries, this drama deserves to be as successful an acting play as it has really proved in the representation: —
E e 4 but

but here we are bound, by every principle of criticism, to stop in our praise. If we say that it is recommended by interesting situations, and tolerably contrasted characters, exhibited in a dialogue that does not impede the progress of the plot, this is all that we *can* allow; and, with more fastidious critics, we are persuaded that even this will be deemed too much. The revenge of an Indian cannot be considered as any very great novelty, by those who remember the several plays that have either turned on or have introduced it among the incidents; and certainly, in the management of this revenge, here is nothing striking or original. The catastrophe, perhaps, has most merit; in which the *Carib Chief* puts his own daughter to death unintentionally, and while only purposing to inflict pain on her husband: but, in truth, the less we dwell on the business of the drama, the better we are convinced it will be for the credit of the dramatist. His play has a good *dashing* succession of scenes, and, as it was very well acted, succeeded to admiration; and we should evince neither justice nor good feeling, in enlarging too much on the faults of arrangement in one of the very few modern attempts that can for a moment claim the deserved title of a tragedy.

Having thus paid the price of the entertainment which we have received, we are compelled, by our daily more singular love for what was once called POETRY in England, to enter our protest against the *tame*, prosaic, and inanimate language of the drama before us. Can this be the style of an English play; a style which leaves all the ornament, the figure, the metaphor, and the passion of our ancestors, entirely out of the question; and confines itself to a good plain *matter-of-fact* statement of events? Let our readers reflect a little on the contrast. The shelves of their libraries will certainly furnish them with the means of instituting the "odious comparison;" and we must admonish them that, if they intend to keep their taste uncontaminated, they ought to refer to the models of established excellence. We will lay before them some specimens, in our judgment, of a very different cast of composition.

Carbal, a native priest of the Caribs, friendly to the Europeans, is conversing with Trefusis, an English commander in prison at Dominica, then partly under the power of France.

' I long had wish'd to set you free, and profit
By your experience in the arts of war,
For shaking off the yoke of France; but Maloch,
Our king, restrain'd my will. At length, Omreeh,

The chieftain of the south, enlarged from bondage,
Lands on the isle, excites our Carib warriors,
And conquers back our southern Dominica :
While, on the neighbouring coast of Guadaloupe,
Montalbert's nuptial joys have been disturb'd
By a strong force of English, which your queen,
The bold Elizabeth, has arm'd from Britain.

' *Tre.* Justice approaches then !

' *Carb.* I urged our king

To seize the occasion, and throw off the power
Of tyrant France. Omreah's fortune warm'd.
His cautious spirit ; but th' appalling strength
Of the French fortress on this isle was still
A check to our revolt.

' *Tre.* And must be ever,
Until some good ally shall bring you store
Of stout artill'ry.

' *Carb.* That have I provided

From England's officers at Guadaloupe.

' *Tre.* Who is our general there ?

' *Carb.* Fitzjohn, your comrade ;

The tidings of your safety gladden'd him :
And he has promis'd, if to-day shall crown
The English victory in Guadaloupe,
He will, this night, dispatch the aids we need
To storm the fortress here ; of which adventure
He gives command to you.'

Now, although it is evident that, in narrative passages, (and even plays *must* have such passages,) a subdued style is required, it is not necessary that POETRY should utterly faint, and breathe her last, on the like occasions. If she be offered a *professed* worship alone, still it is highly indecorous thus to yawn in her face. It would be better far, and more in keeping, to let such matters be announced in simple prose ; and not to have recourse to this *versifying of news-papers*, which has become so fashionable.

In the ensuing passage, the *tame* tone is still more objectionable. It is not necessary to run into dulness for the sake of being well-mannered ; nor need we be violent in order to be energetic. With this caution, we proceed to quote Mr. Twiss's amatory lucubrations.

Marian, the friend of Claudina, thus addresses her on her arrival in Dominica :

' *Mar.* I hoped to see your bridal visit paid
With happier omen.

' *Clau.* It has one relief,
That I can here embrace my childhood's friend,
And open all my aching heart to Marian :

For these afflictions, with the earlier griefs
Whose cureless pain has wrung my soul so long,
Are wasting me to death.

' *Mar.* The earlier griefs?

Have not these nuptial rites, the lapse of time,
Nor the fresh tumult of this English war,
Worn out their memory?

' *Clau.* These have but increased
My bosom's strife. How may Montalbert's bride
Dwell without guilt on the too constant love
She bore another? Yet, how chase the thought
Of him, whose image, and fond memory
This fatal shore so bitterly renews,
My slaughtered, brave Trefusis? Here he fell,
In the attempt against an adversary
Whom I have wedded — who, till war broke forth
'Twixt France and England, had himself design'd
Trefusis for my husband.

' *Mar.* Time, Claudina,
And your Montalbert's lasting tenderness,
Will soften these regrets.

' *Clau.* Heaven knows how truly
I feel Montalbert's goodness. He preserved
My infant life: supplied the place of parents,
Whom haply that wide massacre destroyed;
But, oh! it was Trefusis that alone
Possess'd my love: the few short happy hours
An orphan girl could know, were made by him,
With him were lost for ever.'

We must take this opportunity, in the midst of our reproof of the author's *tameness*, to bestow unqualified praise on his *moral management* of a circumstance which, in other and less correct hands, has been made the subject of so much false sympathy, and vile relaxation of honourable principles; we mean the unfortunate, and indeed always the corrupt, existence of affection for any one but a wife, or a husband, in a married bosom. Yet, with all the credit that is justly the author's due for getting well out of such a difficulty, it would be altogether better never to get into it. Let him take *this* admonition in good part; and, whatever he may think of the severity of other portions of our critique, let him be assured that, if we did not deem him *worth* strong advice, we should be far from bestowing it on him.

One of the few poetical passages in the drama follows the quotation which we have just made:

— ' Hope's genial dews,
So freshly scatter'd at the dawn of youth,
Still vanish from us as the burning day

Grows

Grows fierce; and we are left at sultry noon,
Parching and faint, upon the wastes of life!

A hero making his entrance fighting is, we suppose, to be considered as a good bold contrivance; but, certainly, when such a burst of violence is displayed in a character *at first*, the author has no slight task to preserve his climax of ferocity. We are glad, however, that such a hero is an Indian; and, in this as in other points, Mr. Twiss has manifested a moral tact greatly superior to that of many of his contemporaries: who seem to delight in clothing the basest villains with the dangerous attributes of capacity and of courage, and with the still more seductive charms of tenderness and constant affection. The exclamation

‘What! from the *North*?’

in Mr. Kean’s mouth, must remind the spectator of Richard; and we wish that the author had not given us some reason to suspect a studied adaptation of similar stage-reminiscences.

‘And strike a three-tongued dagger to *his* heart,
Such as now cankers mine!’

is sublime indeed in vengeance.

The speech that shortly succeeds we quote as one of the best in the play:

‘*Omreah*. Come, great Montalbert! bring!
Thy bride, to see and share the devastation
To-morrow’s day-break shall reveal! — To-morrow!
Thou know’st it is the consecrated day,
The anniversary of that which brought
Death on *my* home. — ’Twas such an eve as this,
So soft, so calm, that, sixteen summers since,
Usher’d that bloodiest morn. Even now, I feel
Hot on my flesh, the fretting of the chains
Montalbert lock’d about me! Even now,
The same devouring fever kindles here, (striking his head)
That madden’d me, when I beheld my child
Seiz’d by his ruffians — saw my darling wife,
The gracious daughter of a line of kings,
Murder’d before mine eyes! — No more, no more,
Or in the whirl of my distemper’d brain,
The great revenge I seek will be forgot,
And my heart burst too soon! — Gods of our land,
Let him but see his bride, like mine, made captive,
And sacrificed by me, as mine by him —
Then, in whatever shape of bitter death,
Or bitterer life, it please ye cast my lot,
Body and soul I give myself unto you,
A martyr — but a conqueror!’

The

The reader is now in possession of our general estimate of this performance, and, partly, of the reasons on which we found our opinion: but we shall proceed to point out a few more passages for censure or applause, before we take leave of the *Carib Chief* and its ingenious author.

The ensuing lines are pretty:

Clau. It is a lovely sunset;
The evening breeze from land blows healthfully
Over my fever'd cheek; and as it cools
The scented turf, a thousand odours breathe
Freshly upon the sense.

Sold. Aye, gentle lady,
You'd little guess, to see these mossy tufts
That spring so green, how few short summers past,
The ground we tread upon lay crimson'd deep,
With human gore!

Clau. My soul grows chill within me!
What place is this?

Sold. The field where, two years since,
My lord Montalbert overthrew the English.

Clau. Here then Trefusis met his fate?

Sold. Even so:
We sought his body, when the fight was over;
But dust, and smearing wounds baffling our search,
We made one general grave for all the slain,
Where yonder little hillock swells.

We need not add that the meeting of the 'lawless lovers' takes place, most opportunely, at this very spot;—and, when the lady declares that she will not fly with her first love, from the duty that she owes to her husband,

*'Never! I can feel
The wrong Montalbert has inflicted on me,
But I am still his wife, and in the hour,
Of grief and peril I will not desert him,'—*

she speaks a language very much wanted on the English stage at present, and indeed absolutely necessary as an antidote to the bane of Bertram, and other similar poisons.

The following common-place on "Love" is rather a failure.

*'Love of me!
Love without truth! Oh, do not so profane
The sacred name. Love knows no dark deceit,
No frozen, false reserve—In love's communion,
Heart beats to heart, and soul to soul transfused,
As meeting rivulets, in whose pure confluence
Each lucid drop commingles!'*

The

The character of the Indian mother, whose love for her foster-son is but just exceeded by her love for her own son, is not ill conceived, nor inartificially brought into action: but there is hardly room for it, compatibly with a due development of the more leading characters; and it is therefore rather a faint outline of a form, mingling with the more defined groupe about it, than a finished part of the picture.

We have praised the catastrophe: but we cannot do justice to it by a partial quotation. We shall therefore present our readers with one more brief extract, and then conclude. — The good spirit, in which the dramatist imagined the character of Claudina, communicates itself to many of her speeches, and no where more honourably than on the subsequent occasion.

Claudina to Trefusis.

' Faithful, much loved friend!
Nobly hast thou redeemed thy promise to me!
We part, 'tis like, for ever. The wide wastes
Of ocean will divide us: and I pray thee,
As we shall never, never meet again,
Strive thou, like me, to banish the remembrance
Of what has been; of thoughts, whose images,
Too dearly loved, must be indulged no more.
We must be firm; we must forget each other!
' Tre. Forget! that word has more of anguish in it,
Than all we have endured! Forget, Claudina!
' Clau. Yes, it must be. Fortune may ravish from us
All joys external; but it leaves us still
The godlike power to suffer, and to do,
As Heav'n commands; — as thou hast done, Trefusis!'

ART. XIV. *A Letter to Professor Stewart; on the Objects of General Terms; and on the axiomatical Laws of Vision.* By J. Fearn, Esq. 4to. 5s. Longman and Co.

WE have borne testimony, on several occasions, to the great ingenuity and the very original cast of thought which are observable in this author; at the same time that we have been forced to regret that want of clearness and elegance in his style, which must inevitably form an additional obstacle to the popularity of any metaphysical lucubrations at the present period. When we contrast the obscurity and the confusion of Mr. Fearn's language with the luminous order and arrangement of Professor Stewart, we can scarcely conceive them to be writers of the same age and country, and employed on similar researches: — but, we fear, it would be vain to attempt, either by the stimulus of example or the sting of

of reproof, to effect an improvement in this pervading fault of the present author. He has evidently adopted a mode of expression as original as his reflections; and, perhaps, this peculiar, perverted, and cramped phraseology may have become by habit the necessary vehicle of his thoughts. We must, however, lament the incurable evil; for we are disposed to believe that, if the manner of Mr. Fearn were as deserving of general attention as his matter is of philosophical regard, the metaphysical pamphlets, of which the present forms a part, would have as extensive a circulation as any tracts of the sort that have for years appeared in England.

The first sentences of the introduction will state Mr. Fearn's object in the publication before us, and will also serve for a justification of the censure which he has extorted from our pen.

' To Dugald Stewart, Esq., &c. &c.

' Sir,

' In presenting a view of the two following subjects, each of which has occupied the attention and urged the genius of thinking men, to a great and celebrated extent, I am impelled by reasons of no ordinary complexion: and, while it is to be expected that the topic which stands *first* subjoined, may, in the outset, interest a more numerous class of literary persons, I am highly urged to solicit the important issue of your earnest notice of that one which is placed *last*. The former subject, however, (besides its own importance) has a certain bearing upon the latter, although it be not obvious here.

' The matter of the "Laws of Vision" is presented as exhibiting what I (who certainly speak under strong inducements to caution) am obliged, by the nature of the thing, to consider a mathematical analysis of the constituents, or cause, of Visible Figure. This, I apprehend, it must be considered; since the Four Laws of Vision are not physical laws, merely, but are Four Axioms, whose truth consequently is necessary, and whose evidence is certainly mathematical. Fully anticipating, as I do, the first impression of so extraordinary a matter, and sensible of the utility of some sort of passport, in my peculiar case; may I therefore be permitted to offer the following observations?'

Mr. Fearn alleges the *authority* of the celebrated Proclus, to warrant him in the attribution of mathematical certainty to the evidence of certain physical laws: but he adduces it with an obscurity, and a failure in precise quotation, which render *even such* an auxiliary of little avail in his main argument. Still we would urge Professor Stewart not to be discouraged by the unpromising aspect of Mr. Fearn's communications, but to "dive below," for the "pearls" which we must consider them as containing; and which the happy
art

art of the Professor will enable him easily to extract, and to place in the most favourable light.

Concerning the second division of Mr. Fearn's subject, we have no leisure to say any thing farther, and we leave him wholly in the hands of the Professor: but to that Professor he makes a still stronger appeal, when he assaults Dr. Reid's whole fabric of *conceptualism* in the most vigorous manner, and really with very plausible arguments. He attacks also the Professor himself, for not having added any thing new to his reasonings, as a *nominalist*; or, at all events, for leaving the old question of "what are the *objects* of our thoughts, when we make use of *general terms*?" exactly where he found it. Whether Mr. Fearn may not be unreasonable, in expecting the Professor to do more in this magic circle than to go through his graceful minuet-steps, and to return and make his bow exactly at the point from which he set out, we shall not undertake to determine: but, with regard to Dr. Reid, the predecessor and the friend of Professor Stewart, we really think that the strictures of Mr. Fearn demand a reply from this quarter.

Dr. Reid has asserted that we perform the act of generalizing (as quoted by Mr. Fearn) "by observing one or more attributes to be *common* to many subjects:" on which Mr. Fearn remarks;

'Now I must observe, that the whole issue of the matter depends upon our ascertaining rigidly, whether the word "*common*," which makes so great a figure in classification, and which as such is here used by Dr. Reid, is to be understood to signify an actual unity of object, in thought; or, only to mean a fictitious unity, arising from a congregation of similar things in thought. And hereupon I may demand the evidence of its actual truth, to be produced from the two foregoing elementary assumptions of Dr. Reid; because these are the only authorities to which he can appeal. "In a man, for instance," (I ask) can "his size," "his age," "his birth," or "his fortune," be "*truly common* to many subjects?"

'That an actually-unbroken unity, of any attribute, should flow from a multitude of scattered individuals, is, I should imagine, a very plain absurdity to suppose. But if the thing does not speak for itself; the commentary of Dr. Reid must render it sufficiently manifest: for this author freely acknowledges, that he apprehends "we may abstract without generalising:" and, upon the other hand, he equally admits, that "we cannot generalise without some degree of abstraction." In short, in the outset of his scheme he has furnished complete evidence, that the fabric of a general conception is a composition, like that of a material structure; he owns, in effect, that we cannot construct any such attribute without first either quarrying, or brick-making; and, that the intellectual fabric, when it is finished, is a thing made up of parts.'

As to what follows, in Mr. Fearn, it is even beyond the charity of our interpretation; and we must beg him to recollect that, when he is opposing the errors (should they prove to be errors) of one of the most perspicuous and correct of writers, (we mean Dr. Reid,) he is particularly bound to banish all *botheration*, and clearly to make himself understood, whatever he may have to say.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR AUGUST, 1819.

POETRY.

Art. 15. *Creation*, and other Poems. Small 8vo. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1818.

The author of these poems tells us, in the beginning of his notes to the 'Creation,' that 'when it was written, he had perfectly forgotten that the same subject had been treated by Milton'!!! A singular confession for a poet, though, it must be owned, somewhat candid! This, however, is not the only instance of the apparent defects of the author's memory. Judging from the stanzas '*in pacem mentis*,' at page 90., which, we suppose, are intended for Latin Sapphics, we are led to believe that he has also 'perfectly forgotten' one Horace, of some poetic fame. Our own memory, however, if the comparison be not invidious, is by no means so treacherous as to have forgotten the flagellation that would have most inevitably ensued, in days of yore, on the production of such lines as,

'*Dulce aut in densis residere sylvis,*'

'*Limpidæ FONTES, nemorumque saltus;*'

or the shame that we should have felt in transcribing such trash as,

'*Te sibi exoptat sociare quisquis,*
Ejus in tutum capiat recessum,'

and so forth.

Art. 16. *The Confession*, or the Novice of St. Clare, and other Poems, by the Author of "*Purity of Heart*." Small 8vo. 4s. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall.

The first of these poems, the story of which is taken from the Spectator, No. 169., is interesting and pleasing: but those which succeed it, by name 'Abraham,' and 'Rebecca,' are little more than meagre versifications of Scripture-history. The sublimity and sanctity of Holy Writ admit not the profane touches of the awkward and unsuccessful novice. Mediocrity in the fine arts is always wretched, but in this instance quite intolerable.

Art.

- Art. 17. *The Rhapsodist, or, Mes Souvenirs; in an Epistle to Aristus*, by Richard Esmond Comerford, Esq. 8vo. pp. 94. Longman and Co.

The former portion of this epistle, which is written in the humble language of prose, and contains, *inter alia*, a very sensible critique on the poems and genius of Homer, is greatly preferable to the latter and poetical portion of it; of which the theme is too miscellaneous, and the object too indefinite, to make it interesting, we apprehend, to the generality of readers. Of notes we have a great superfluity: the author not being contented with subjoining his remarks at the bottom of each page, but adding a whole *posse-comitatus* of them at the end of the volume. He appears, however, to be a man of much classical attainment, and has evidently studied the "*Exemplaria Græca*" with considerable advantage.

- Art. 18. *The Harp of the Desert; containing the Battle of Algiers, with other Pieces in Verse*. By Ismael Fitz-adam, formerly able Seaman on board the ——— Frigate. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Whitmore and Fenn.

An 'able seaman' turned poet is a strange instance of metamorphosis, if it be a fact; and the perusal of this little volume has not diminished, but rather heightened, our surprise: for the author is evidently possessed of stronger intellectual powers, and more mental refinement, than usually fall to the lot of the sons of Neptune. It is curious, however, to observe in 'the Battle of Algiers,' and even in the midst of rhymes, the honest unreserved freedom, the patriotic pride, and the blunt and homely language, of our gallant heroes of the ocean.

- Art. 19. *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage to the Dead Sea: Death on the pale Horse; and other Poems*. 8vo. pp. 52. Baldwin and Co.

These productions are prefaced by some comparatively good lines, addressed to the author's 'forsaken harp:' but the succeeding poem appears to imitate the wildness, the abruptness, the irregularity, in short all the bad features of Lord Byron's muse, without exhibiting his grandeur of conception or his real genius. It is strange to observe how invariably the *servum pecus* of imitators refuse to imitate a model worthy of being copied, and prefer, almost without exception, one which is sure to lead them astray. As long as this is the case, the degeneracy of our modern poetry may continue the subject of regret, but can excite no sensations of astonishment. — 'Death on the pale Horse' is a blank-verse skeleton of the apocalyptic vision of St. John: we need not say "*quantum mutatus ab illo!*"

- Art. 20. *The Imperial Captive; or the unexampled Career of the Ex-Emperor Napoleon, from the Period of his quitting Elba to that of his Surrender to the English Nation, circumstantially developed*. By John Gwilliam, Author of "*The Battles of the Danube and Barrosa*," &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 11. 1s. Boards. Jennings.

The genius of Mr. Gwilliam's muse appears particularly adapted to the celebration of deeds of military prowess: in the detail of sieges, battles, and all the various movements and machinery of war, he is quite at home; and he is surpassed, we think, by few of his contemporaries. The latter part of the history of Napoleon, which almost every person now knows so well, has in course lost not only every charm of novelty, but much of that kind of attractiveness which is always united with the scene that is passing before us, but which fades away when that temporary interest is no more. Yet Mr. Gwilliam has happily contrived to infuse into his subject an air of novelty as well as of variety, of which it might have been conceived incapable; and he has blended, with the truth of historical narrative, the luxuriant embellishments of poetic imagery. The attention of the reader is aroused and maintained by the brilliancy of the scene, the continuity of the action, the propriety of the sentiments, the harmony and fluency of the language, and above all by the masterly portraiture of the several characters of the piece. That of the hero himself is a first-rate likeness. The scenes of his first captivity, the frequent agitations of his restless spirit, his quick and hurried manner, his desperate determination to invade France, the enthusiasm of the French on his landing, his entrance into the capital, his conduct at Waterloo, and his subsequent flight, are all painted with glowing tints, and with apparent accuracy.

If, however, any thing takes off from this generally pleasing effect, it is the length to which the poem is protracted. If the same matter could have been compressed into a narrower compass,—into one volume, for instance, instead of two,—the *coup d'œil* would have been more striking and impressive; and the work, being then placed within the reach of so much larger a proportion of readers, would have had more chance of being rewarded with the meed of public favour.

Art. 21. *Britain; or Fragments of Poetical Aberration*. By Mrs. M^c Mullan. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We here recognize the name of a fair, we must not say an old, acquaintance; who now appears before us, for the last time, in the unenviable character of a wandering Sappho, and invites us to the pleasing task of accompanying her in her travels, or, as she fancifully terms them, '*poetical aberrations*.' We have done this; and, being now required to give our readers an account of the entertainment which we have experienced by the way, we have to inform them that our road has been too frequently tedious and heavy; that the prospect and scenery before us were not always the most *riant* or satisfactory, but savoured more of the less successful efforts of art than of the genuine glow and vivifying tints of nature; and that it has only been by dint of effort and exertion, that we have escaped being benighted in the dark and trackless *passages* which we have had to traverse. Having accomplished our task, however, we are more disposed to congratulate ourselves on our safe return, than to pine over the fatigue that we encountered; and we now take leave of our fair conductress with the

the utmost good humour, and the sincere hope that she may have at length found, what so seldom falls to the poet's lot, the reward of patient and persevering industry.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 22. *Memoir of the early Life of William Cowper, Esq.* written by himself, and never before published. With an Appendix containing some of Cowper's religious Letters; and other interesting Documents, illustrative of the Memoir. Second Edition. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Edwards.

This is indeed a melancholy little book, and so depressing are its contents to every candid and humane mind, that we owe but a slight apology to our readers for having long delayed to announce it.

“*Quorsum hæc tam putida tendunt?*”

What is the use of dragging, or where is the honourable feeling that can encourage or allow a friend or a foe to drag, these post-humous miseries into light? This amiable, this ill-starred being, seems to us to be pursued beyond the tomb with unrelenting folly; and nothing but the already extensive notoriety of the present objectionable memoir could induce us to add an atom to its evil reputation. The thing, however, is known; and the only chance of doing good at present, with relation to such a publication, is to brand it with the censure which it merits. The opportunity of silence is no longer afforded us. What will those of our readers think, who have not hitherto fallen in with the ‘Memoir’ of William Cowper, when they are told that it contains the records of insanity penned by the hand of the sufferer; and cruelly published since the death of that distinguished but most unhappy person? This is enough. We really are unable to draw the veil, more than in such general terms as are forced from us, from the scenes of horror here exhibited. Here is suicide, repeatedly attempted; here is enthusiasm, in its excesses of rapture and of gloom; here is all that can indicate the banishment of reason from a pure, from an ætherial mind; all that demands the sympathy of the good, and awakens the trembling reflection of the wise.

After such a train of miseries, to talk of ‘religious Letters,’ and other ‘interesting Documents’!! Is not this in the perfect strain of fanaticism, best adapted to these fanatical times? in which, if the general progress of human knowledge, and the example of former ferocities, *should* be sufficient to prevent the return of the *triumphs of puritanism*, yet may we, most philosophically, apprehend that the approaches to such a crisis will be alarmingly and degradingly near; and, if England *shall* escape the gulph of *religious hypocrisy*, she will be distinctly seen to totter on the brink of that unfathomable abyss.

The volume concludes with a well-meant dissuasive from suicide. Would to God that any human, or divine, interposition could diminish this opprobrium on our common nature! but of how little avail any arguments are likely to be, coming from the

mouth either of the unhappy subject or of the weak publisher of this 'Memoir,' over those who have resisted such infinitely stronger and less suspected reasonings, it is unnecessary farther to observe.

One of the most dangerous notions, propagated in this combustible volume, is the vain belief of an immediate consciousness of the voice of the Deity speaking within us, or of his clear command to do this or that apparently indifferent action: but it would be endless to trace every religious error here maintained to its metaphysical origin; and still more ingeniously absurd to endeavour to reconcile the aberrations of plain and positive distraction with some fanciful refinement of faith. May we not at last inquire, will this man of genius and of goodness never have rest in the grave? Will his countrymen never whisper the pathetic and the poetical question over him—at least as thus applied,—

“ *NUNC non è manibus illis,
NUNC non è tumulo, fortunatâque favilla
Nascentur violæ?*”

E D U C A T I O N.

Art. 23. *Clavis Metrico-Virgiliana*, a metrical Guide to the right Intelligence of Virgil's Versification, &c. By John Carey, LL.D. 12mo. bound. Longman and Co.

Dr. Carey has here presented us with another useful publication on the subject of Latin prosody, in which he has brought together all the metrical anomalies that are to be found in Virgil, and arranged them in methodical order; specifying the Eclogue, Georgic, or Æneid, in which they occur. His analysis, however, of the poetic licence, will be found better adapted to the capacity of the tyro than to that of the more advanced proficient. We naturally felt a curiosity to see his explanation of that singular instance of poetic licence which occurs in the sixth Eclogue,

“ *Clamessent ut litus Hyla, Hyla, omne sonaret,*”

and could not help feeling some disappointment at finding nothing more satisfactory than the following remark: ‘*Hylā* (the first) the *a* saved from elision, and retained long: *Hylă* (the latter) the *a* saved from elision, and shortened before the following vowel.’ There are also many observations which might have been omitted without any injury to the student; and in all elementary books it should be remembered that simplicity and conciseness cannot be too much consulted. We see no reason for any remark on the words “*suetus*” and “*insuetus*,” any more than on the word “*suavis*.” but, if the one was worthy of notice, the other was so likewise. Nor was it, we think, very necessary, in every instance where such words as Orpheus, Nereus, Cæneus, &c. occurred, to have invariably observed that such words are dissyllables, by reason of the *eu* being a diphthong. The treatise, however, we have no doubt, will accelerate the learner's progress in the study of the Virgilian verse; and we recommend it for this purpose to the notice of those who are engaged in the business of classical instruction.

HISTORY.

Art. 24. *A short History of France*; including the principal Events from the Foundation of the Empire by Pharamond to the Restoration of Louis XVIII. For young Persons. With Six Engravings from original Designs. By Mrs. Moore. 12mo. pp. 290. 7s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

A plain unadorned narrative of the principal events of the history of France, from the earliest ages. The space, however, given to the heroes of a barbarous æra (Childebert, Dagobert, &c.) has necessarily curtailed the recital of the more interesting events of recent ages. A tabular statement, with the dates of accession and demise, would, in our opinion, have sufficed for these rude and unlettered sovereigns.

Art. 25. *The History of France, from the earliest Periods to the second Return of Louis XVIII., &c. &c.* By Frances Thurtell, Author of "Ashford Rectory," &c. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Hailes. 1818.

We have here a good elementary history; the most prominent events of each reign being adroitly seized and rendered more impressive by the writer's assiduity in recording many heroic and remarkable sentiments of celebrated persons, which history or tradition has preserved. A very considerable portion of the volume is devoted to the events of the last forty years, but we by no means consider this as a fault in the performance.

POLITICS.

Art. 26. *On the Scarcity of Money*; and its Effects upon the Public, with the Expedients by which alone they can be remedied, and the Nation saved from ruin. By Edward Tatham, D.D. Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. Fifth Edition. Adapted to the present Time. 8vo. pp. 66. Rivingtons, &c. 1819.

We have already had occasion to report (August, 1816,) on the political lucubrations of the Rev. Dr. Tatham, and cannot, with any regard to critical impartiality, pass any higher compliment on him now than formerly. In fact, the essay here published with the imposing *prefix* of 'fifth edition' seems little more than a new modelling, or as the French term it, *une augmentation*, of the tract given to the public three years ago; the circulation of which can be ascribed to nothing but a popular mode of stating opinions which certainly do not rise above the level of popular conception. Dr. T. dwells on the export of our coin for subsidies, on the transmission of bullion to China, and finally on the reduced supplies of specie from the mines of America, as the grand causes of our present distress; and he seems to be seriously of opinion that to open a new supply of bullion would afford a remedy for our existing difficulties. In the farther part of his pamphlet, he proceeds, with a happy fluency, to recommend various expedients, viz.

1. The increase of our coin, accompanied by a proportional increase of paper. — 2. To deprive the Bank of England of its ex-

clusive privileges. — 3. The grand reserve of a national insurance, managed on account of government. — 4. To establish national and provincial banks. — 5. To new-model our poor-laws. — 6. A reform in the bankrupt-law. — 7. To transfer the tolls of the principal roads to government, and employ the soldiers to work on them. — 8. To bring the forest and crown-lands into cultivation.

Nothing can be more reasonable than the propositions 2, 4, 5, 6, which relate respectively to, the freedom of Banking, the improvement of our Poor-Laws, and the reform of the Bankrupt-code: but the benefit that would arise from the third suggestion, the transfer of insurance to the hands of government, is already enjoyed by the Treasury in the shape of a heavy tax levied on all insurances: the transfer (No. 7.) of the management of the roads to government, and the employment of soldiers to work on them, seems a very questionable proposition; and the cultivation (No. 8.) of the forests or crown-lands is evidently ill adapted to a season in which no small part of our embarrassment arises from our having brought too much poor land into tillage. Our grand objection, however, is to the proposition (No. 1.) for the increase of our coin and paper, at a time when every thing in the state either of England or the Continent calls for a reduction of the latter.

Art. 27. *A Letter addressed to the Right Honourable Robert Peel, &c. &c. late Chairman of the Committee of Secrecy, appointed to consider of the State of the Bank of England, with Reference to the Expediency of the Resumption of Cash-Payments at the Period fixed by Law.* By Samuel Turner, Esq. F.R.S. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 88. Asperne. 1819.

Mr. T. was a Director of the Bank of England, but happens at present to be out of office by rotation, and takes up the pen to combat the opinions lately brought forwards in parliament by Mr. Peel, and the plan suggested by Mr. Ricardo. His great argument is that taxes cannot be defrayed by any saving on the part of the contributor, whether a landholder, a farmer, or a merchant, but that they are unavoidably attended by a general fall in the value of money: — thus, in the case of a farm of the rent of 300l., the landlord receives

The farmer, for the support of himself and family,	-	300
The expence of cultivation in labourers, horses, &c.	-	300

£ 900

If government impose taxes to the extent of 300l., they will be paid, not by any relinquishment on the part of the landholder, farmer, or labourers, but by that enhancement of prices which shall raise the money-value of the produce of the farm from 900l. to 1200l. Still Mr. T. is far from recommending that the currency of England should continue in the same artificial state. He is (p. 33.) a resolute advocate of economy, and advises the adoption by parliament of resolutions nearly as obligatory on the Bank as those which were suggested by the late committee;

mittee; viz. that small notes (of 1l. and 2l.) should be payable in cash in less than two years; and that in less than four years (May 1823) the Bank should be liable to pay all notes, of whatever size, in coin. His plan differs from that of the late committee, or, in other words, of Mr. Ricardo, in two points; viz. in leaving bullion-payments out of the question, and in declining the proffered accommodation of paying bank-notes, for a time, at a diminished value. Like the other directors, Mr. T. maintains that the Bank is perfectly able and ready to pay, and that the delay has originated solely from the continuance of the government-debt to the Bank, and from a dread of injuring commerce by a too rapid limitation of discounts. Our space does not allow us to enter into Mr. T.'s arguments (p. 39.) in defence of the Directors against the imprudence charged on them in parliament by Mr. Ricardo: but we fully concur with the assertion (p. 74.) that their measures have never been actuated by the interest of their establishment, when it was at variance with that of the country. It is farther apparent (p. 66.) that the Directors have for some time proceeded on a plan of progressive retrenchment. The amount of bank-notes in circulation in

Aug. 1817	were £30,112,661	Aug. 1818	were £26,603,937
Nov. 1817	29,446,087	Nov. 1818	26,026,540
Feb. 1818	28,742,826	Feb. 1819	25,680,114
May 1818	27,985,869		

We have in p. 49. another useful table, exhibiting in distinct columns the amount of notes in circulation, with the prices of bullion, of wheat, and of butcher's meat at the corresponding dates: but it is accompanied by what we cannot help considering as a very irrelevant addition, viz. the prices of groceries, oil, copper, and iron. It is this trespass of redundancy that constitutes the chief drawback on Mr. T.'s merits; his ideas being enveloped in such a crowd of repetitions and diffuse illustrations, that the reader has no little difficulty in bringing them to a point, and in ascertaining with precision the drift of the argument.

Art. 28. *A Second Letter to the Right Honourable Robert Peel, M. P. on the Causes of the Increase of Pauperism, and on the Poor Laws.* By One of his Constituents. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 112. 3s. 6d. Murray. 1819.

The outset of this pamphlet is a continuation of the discussion of the bank-question pursued in the former letter to Mr. Peel, and reported in our Number for April last. The use of bank-paper, says this judicious and intelligent writer, must gradually pervade all civilized countries, and must eventually lower the value of gold and silver; since the additional demand for these metals, created by the advance of population, can scarcely balance the great make-weights in the opposite scale, viz. the increased supply from the mines by improved machinery, and the diminished demand for coin from the more general use of paper-currency. This natural fall in the value of money should by no means be accelerated by an artificial cause, such as a continuance of the

non-convertibility of our bank-notes: in fact, our present system of bounties, prohibitions, and taxes, for the regulation of trade, is altogether artificial and unnatural: 'our object should be not to sustain the different classes at this level, (for descend they must, sooner or later,) but to contrive that all shall descend as equably as possible.'

The part of the letter that is appropriated to the poor-laws begins with an acknowledgement to several writers who have lately discussed that question, and with stating the object of the writer to be an inquiry, — 1. What government *can do* towards the relief of the poor? — 2. What our own government *has done*? — 3. What under existing circumstances *ought to be done*? We have not room to enter minutely into this very extensive investigation, or to do more than merely notice the substance of this tract. The author takes a review of the principal acts of parliament relative to the poor, several of which were prior to the fundamental law passed in 1601 towards the conclusion of the reign of Elizabeth; presents us with some curious tables of the comparative price of provision and labour during the 16th century; and infers that the condition of the labourer was then in a state of progressive deterioration, his wages by no means rising in proportion to the rise of provisions. The reign of Elizabeth bore a striking resemblance to the present age, both in the repeated occurrence of years of scarcity and in the rapid increase of trade. The 17th century was marked by less sudden changes: the value of money did not materially fall, nor did the state of the poor excite much attention till towards the close of the century; when, as in our own day, England was exposed to the pressure of a great foreign war, the evils of a sudden change, and the occurrence of several bad seasons. In the 18th century, work-houses were adopted as the best check for the growing evil. They appear to have succeeded during the first thirty years, and to have effected a great modification in the annual charge for the poor: but after that time, whether the mode of managing had become more negligent, or the dread inspired by these establishments had begun to abate, certain it is that they soon became unproductive. Nothing material was done to amend them till Mr. Gilbert's act in 1782, which has been repeatedly noticed in our pages; and the main object of which was to enable magistrates to throw into one work-house, as a general receptacle, the poor of all the neighbouring parishes, in order that these institutions might derive the utmost advantage from the division of labour and the superintendence of a better class of inspectors. (See our Number for December, 1813, p. 433.)

Money raised for the poor of England and Wales, agreeably to a parliamentary return made in 1818:—

Average of three years, ending with 1750,	-	£ 730,135
The year 1776,	-	1,720,316
Average of 1783, 1784, 1785,	-	2,167,748
The year 1803,	-	5,348,204
Average of 1813, 1814, 1815,	-	8,164,496

This

This vast increase appears very rapid: but, in all computations of the poor-rate, it is necessary to keep in view two main considerations,—the enhancement of corn, and the enlargement of our population. Measured by this standard, the amount paid in England for the relief of the poor during the last seventy years has not always been in an advancing ratio. In the second series, from 1776 to 1783, the increase was somewhat less than it might have been expected from the conjunct operation of these causes. In the third period, from 1785 to 1803, the augmentation, indeed, was uncommonly great; but, in the last twelve years, ending with 1815, the rise in the price of wheat, and the increase of our population, were so large, that a farther addition to the poor-rate, to the extent of nearly half a million, might have been apprehended. This reasoning is in perfect conformity with what has been already exhibited in our pages, (M. R. for September, 1818,) in the report of Mr. Barton's pamphlet on the circumstances of the "Labouring Classes;" and it is farther confirmed by the official return of the number of persons, exclusive (in most cases) of children, receiving permanent parish-relief: which in the year 1813 was 971,913l.; in 1814, was 953,995l.; in 1815, was 895,973l.—This decrease, evidently owing to the reduction of the price of wheat, opens an encouraging prospect, in the event of the landed interest being enabled, by a diminution of the burdens that press most heavily on them, to support a farther reduction of the price of wheat:—we mean, to lower the importation-limit from 80s. to 76s. Such an abatement would doubtless lessen in some measure the demand for agricultural labour: but, by bringing our manufacturing wages more nearly to a level with those of the Continent, it would increase the demand for labour in a much more interesting and productive branch.

In adverting to parochial benefit-societies, the author expresses a decided disapprobation of them, it being quite unreasonable to expect a poor man to save for others: all that we can in propriety require is that he shall be induced to save for himself; and hence the excellency of saving-banks. 'In them,' says this forcible writer, 'there is no calculation of contingencies—no balancing of motives—no mutual envy and suspicious vigilance—no rejection of a sickly applicant—no ale-house meetings, no cabals, no debates—no anxiety lest another should reap what we are sowing—no doubt, in short, entertained, but a sober certainty, that every shilling so saved is laid up for the benefit either of the depositor himself, or of those who are no less dear to him than himself.'—Saving-banks might, he thinks, be considerably improved by certain modifications of the late act, commonly called Mr. Rose's Act; for, though Mr. R. was a man full of active benevolence, he was never distinguished by comprehensive views or any strong capacity for legislation.

The poor-rates were increased during the war as a substitute for a rise of wages, in the dread that wages, once raised, cannot again be lowered; though this, in the opinion of the present writer, was a false calculation: the wages are in fact raised but not to the right per-

son; and it would be more manly, perhaps more liberal, to advance wages than to increase the parish-distribution. 'No violent remedy, however, seems to be called for: the chief benefit will arise from knowing our constitution more accurately, and from discovering the true seat of the disorder.'

The great fault of this, as of the former "Letter to Mr. Peel," is a want of finish; the statements being frequently obscure, and the arguments put down as they flowed from the pen of the writer, instead of being examined and re-arranged to suit the deficient knowledge of his reader. Various passages, exclusive of those that we have noticed, (see pp. 23. 90, &c.) discover an energetic and well stored mind: but, to give currency and popularity to the whole, it would be necessary to make a compound of this and the former essay, revising the sequence of the reasoning, and carefully supplying those links in the chain which are requisite to bring the whole within the grasp of the public mind.

Art. 29. *Radical Reform Restoration of usurped Rights.* By George Ensor, Esq. 8vo. pp. 262. 7s. Boards. Wilson. 1819.

Seldom has the cause of reform possessed a more zealous or laborious champion than Mr. Ensor. Unwearied by his former efforts, he returns to the charge, and discusses in the present volume a surprizing variety of topics, combating with sturdy resolution the various objections to reform. The possession of property, he says, is by no means a necessary preliminary to the right of suffrage: every man who is capable of defraying his support, and of discharging the taxes involved in such payments, has a right to vote for his representatives; and, supposing that property does confer a title, we shall find that in fact the right of voting is enjoyed by a very small portion of the men of property in these islands. There exists, adds Mr. E., no uniformity or correspondence in the election-laws of England and Scotland, or even in the different towns of England; the result of all which has been to throw the management of the House of Commons into the hands of Government, by a system which, begun so early as the reign of Charles II. by the notorious Clifford, was, in the course of last century, brought into a finished state by a succession of ministers perfectly worthy to follow the steps of that political adventurer. In these and many other passages, Mr. E. discovers a familiarity with our history, a great extent of reading, and a striking aptitude of illustration: but all unaccompanied by that habit of reflection or command of temper, which are indispensable to the formation of sound opinions or to the introduction of eligible reform. Gibbon, on witnessing the horrors of the French Revolution, lamented the latitude of his published opinions, and proposed to write a dialogue in which Lucian, Erasmus, and Voltaire, should mutually discuss the danger of attacking an established creed. Mr. E.'s plan of reform is (p. 236.) short and simple. 'Parliaments should be annual; all adult males, not criminals, not insane, and not subsisting on alms, should be voters; all elections should take place throughout the nation on the same day, but the number

ber of members of parliament should be as at present, the change consisting in the transfer of the elective franchise from small or deserted towns to populous places, like Birmingham or Manchester.'

Our limits do not allow us to give even a sketch of the vast variety of matter introduced, with very little method or sequence, into this volume. We conclude, therefore, by an extract which, though very short, may afford our readers an idea of Mr. E.'s cogent and unsparing mode of pushing an argument:

'Suppose that by rotten-boroughs some estimable men entered the House of Commons — what does this prove? Nothing. It may illustrate an ordinary observation, that there are few pure evils: for if a casualty of this kind is to justify pocket-boroughs, rotten-boroughs, or to afford them even benefit of clergy, monkery is defensible, for according to Procopius (*De Bello Goth.* lib. iv. c. 17.) certain monks in the time of Justinian introduced silk-worms' eggs from India into the empire, and with them the silk-manufacture. So will negro-slavery be justified, for Humboldt observes, that a "slave-ship first carried the yam into South America." So will our paper-currency, and particularly the murderous one of pound-notes, be justified; for Mr. Hall informs us that "they have obliged some of the inhabitants of Ireland to learn to read!" P. 240.

Art. 30. *A Sketch of the Causes of Decay in the Legislative Government and Representation of the Country.* 8vo. pp. 62. 2s. 6d. Wilson. 1819.

It is no easy matter to shew the connection between this pamphlet and its title, or even to form a clear estimate of the opinions of the writer; who in one place (p. 19.) laments the enormous amount of our national debt, and in another (p. 2.) seems to consider it as 'the fostering parent of the greatest commerce and enterprize in trade.' Nor can any thing be more unequal than the author's opinions in other respects: he seems to have (pp. 7. 10. 18.) a just conception of the defects of our election-laws; considers (p. 22.) the youth of Mr. Pitt on his coming into office as a great public misfortune; is aware (p. 39.) of the impolicy of our interference with the Continent; and appears (p. 43.) to know what is not generally known of the disadvantage attendant on overgrown colonies: but he clouds all that would be useful or instructive in his views by a mass of *verbiage*, or by the introduction (pp. 7. 10.) of coarse and vulgar allusions; and finally lays the axe to the root of his own tree, by desiring 'that what he has written may not be supposed positively and formally insisted on, but merely his opinion.' Here is no table of contents, no division into sections, and, as far as we can judge, no serious attempt to preserve connection in the reasoning. With regard to style, we need point out only such expressions as, (p. 54.) 'Scotland, the least of the three *divisions* into which the British empire is *divided*.' The occasional occurrence of *Scoticisms* seems to mark the quarter whence this singular effusion has proceeded; and we dismiss it in the hope that, should the writer again come before the public,

he will allow his imagination to be castigated by those habits of deliberation which it is common to ascribe to our fellow-subjects in the north.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 31. *Three Letters to the Hebrew Nation*, by the Author of "The Christian, a Poem." 12mo. Boards. Whittemore.

We spoke of the first of these letters in our fifty-first volume, p. 206. The author's name was then given as Charles Crawford, Esq. who now (we understand) claims the title of Earl of Crawford and Lindsay. He has furnished a clear and accurate exposition of the Hebrew prophecies relative to the Messiah, and shews that they have received their accomplishment in the person and coming of Jesus of Nazareth. The calmness of temper with which the question is discussed, and the charitable sympathy evinced for the present persecuted and degraded condition of the people addressed, will be viewed with warm approbation by every lover of religious liberty, and every sincere disciple of Christianity; while they will invariably be found the ablest advocates of the cause which is here maintained. The conversion, however, of the Jews cannot reasonably be expected to be sudden; nor is it, perhaps, desirable that it should be so. Ages, in all likelihood, must be suffered to pass away, before prejudices so deeply rooted, hopes so strongly fixed, and habits of thinking so thoroughly formed and settled, can be entirely removed and diametrically changed. To the silent progress of time, we confess, we are more inclined to trust than to any efforts of man, for effecting, under Providence, a gradual progress towards the desirable end, by removing some of the obstacles which now impede the attainment of it; we mean, by proving those predictions to be already fulfilled, to the accomplishment of which the Jews continue to extend their hopes with the fondest but most infatuated credulity. It may farther be remarked that, before such an event as the *general* conversion of the Jews will be permitted to arrive, the religious knowledge and religious *practice* of the Christian world must be very considerably extended and improved: though, if this be true, it only makes the end in question still more desirable.

Art. 32. *Three Discourses on the Care of the Animal Creation*, and the Duties of Man to them. By the Rev. James Plumptre, B. D. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Darton and Co.

The subject of these discourses being entirely of a practical nature, the style and language are made to correspond with it in plainness and simplicity, and are unadorned even perhaps to a fault. Friends as we are, generally speaking, to simplicity of language from the pulpit, and much as we loathe a meretricious superfluity of ornament, we should have been at least as much pleased if, in the present case, the orator had made some endeavour to enforce the doctrine which he teaches by an appeal to the feelings of his audience. He is contented, however, with a mere statement of his arguments; and the inferences from them he leaves to be drawn by others, without any attempt to bring the matter home

home to the hearts and consciences of the persons whom he addresses. We the more regret this, because the subject appears to afford ample scope for interesting the feelings, as well as barely convincing the understanding.

Art. 33. *Practical Discourses*, by the Author (Rev. Joshua Gilpin) of "A Monument of parental Affection to a dear and only Son." 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard, &c.

Of these sixteen sermons, eight are taken up in illustrating the characters and excellence of charity, as described by St. Paul to the Corinthians; a subject important no doubt, and we must say very well treated: but the same might have been effected in a narrower compass, and thus room would have been given for a greater variety in the other parts of the volume; which would consequently have increased its interest and value. Three other sermons occur, on occasional subjects; viz. two assize-sermons, preached in the church of St. Mary, at Shrewsbury; and one on the death of Mrs. Anna Maria Gilpin, the author's wife: so that, although the discourses themselves are not without merit, being sufficiently plain, perspicuous, and practical, and exhibiting but few instances of any thing hostile to our judgment, yet the scope which they embrace is so narrow and confined, that it is impossible to consider them as any great acquisition to the theological pile with which the libraries of our English divines are already filled.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *Cautions to Continental Travellers*. By J. W. Cunningham, A.M. late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge; Vicar of Harrow, Middlesex, &c. 12mo. pp. 106. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1818.

Mr. Cunningham is a rapid and voluminous writer, having already come before the public in a variety of works, of which the most widely circulated have been "A World without Souls," and "The Velvet Cushion." The latter was noticed in our Number for December, 1814; and when we consider the notions so prevalent among us with regard to continental morals, it excites little surprise that the dangers of travelling should have alarmed this zealous defender of our national faith and constitution. The little volume before us takes no notice of the hazards of the road, or of the impositions to which a traveller is exposed, but contains a series of admonitions on the moral danger of lingering in France or its gay metropolis. Mr. C. sets out by attempting to embody his remarks in the following questions:

1. Are our travellers likely to be much influenced by the scenes which they visit? — 2. Is their influence on their native country likely to be considerable? — 3. Is there much to be apprehended from the actual state of foreign countries? — 4. In what manner is the character of our travellers likely to be affected? — 5. Does the evil admit of a remedy?

Of these questions Mr. C. has no hesitation in answering the first three in the affirmative; declaring that our travellers are no longer confined to nobility and gentry too proud to imitate foreign

foreign customs, but comprize all classes, and no small number of that sex whose influence at home is permanent and extensive. We are thus in danger, he adds, of acquiring a habit of treating almost every subject with levity, and of becoming eager to substitute amusement out of doors for the tranquillity of the domestic circle.—We were not a little mortified in finding a writer of originality and acuteness placing confidence in the hasty and exaggerated assertions of Mr. J. Scott relative to the morals of the middling classes at Paris; although many subsequent travellers, among others Mr. Ormsby, a brother-clergyman of Mr. C., (whose “*Letters from the Continent*” are noticed in the subsequent article,) express so very different an opinion, and make so clear a distinction between the last and the present age.—Another and perhaps a more just objection to continental rambling is founded on the danger of accustoming our countrymen to rest satisfied with superficial knowlege, and with an elegant and trifling species of literature. After having expatiated in a very desultory strain on these and a variety of other topics, Mr. C. at last brings his admonitions to a point by urging the traveller to ‘ground himself firmly in the evidences of religion:’ ‘under no circumstances to violate the sanctity of the Sabbath:’ ‘to bridle his curiosity;’ and rather to ‘carry abroad the principles and habits of his own country than import among us those of foreign nations.’ The whole is evidently the work of a zealous and conscientious man; familiar, in no inconsiderable degree, with literary and theological discussions, but alarmed beyond all fair bounds at the hazards of continental travelling, and by no means careful to exhibit his ideas in a clear and digested form.

Art. 35. *Letters from the Continent*, during the Months of October, November, and December, 1818: including a Visit to Aix-la-Chapelle, and the left Bank of the Rhine. By the Rev. James Wilmot Ormsby, A.M. Chaplain to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and Rector of Castle-comer. 8vo. pp. 180. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

After an apology for the time which this author has allowed to elapse between the performance of his tour and the publication of his report of it, he proceeds, in the usual form of letters to a friend, to give an account of his journey from Calais to Dunkirk, Lille, Cambray, and Valenciennes. At the last he stopped to witness the review of the allied armies, and enjoyed the spectacle of nearly 60,000 men drawn up along a space of about 12 miles. After a sham battle, which continued with a great variety of movements from ten o’clock till four, he saw the whole march in line before their sovereigns and their English commander-in-chief. From the scene of this military array, Mr. O. proceeded by Mons to Brussels; and, after the magnificent accounts which he had received of the Belgic capital, he was not a little disappointed at the dirt and insalubrity of the Lower Town. He found the government, however, engaged in making improvements, taking down a part of the useless old ramparts, erecting a theatre, and plan-

planning the foundation of a palace in the spot left vacant by the ramparts.

From Brussels, Mr. O. proceeded to Liege by miserable roads, and with wretched driving; incarcerated in a cumbrous vehicle with eleven persons, each of whom, according to established custom, had a pipe or cigar in his mouth. At Liege, deceived in his expectations by the suburbs, and a great part of the town, he was delighted by the extensive view from the citadel; whence he saw 'hills rising on hills wooded with luxuriance, yet not so thickly as to conceal the smiling and cultivated vallies.' Aix-la-Chapelle, to which he next proceeded, disappointed him greatly: all was darkness and stillness in the streets, which contained few equipages or pedestrians, and few places of public entertainment; while the boasted Rue de Compesbad, which he had heard so loudly vaunted, proved to have only half the width of Charing Cross, and to owe its reputation merely to its being the site of the principal hôtels, and the *redoute* for the concerts and assemblies. Taking the direction of the Rhine, Mr. Ormsby next visited Cologne, a town formerly noted for its beggars and its idleness, but now in a state of improvement; mendicity being almost banished from the streets, and the manufactures of silk, cotton, hats, and gloves, going on with considerable activity. Bonn, the next stage in his journey, has lately been made the seat of an university, for which the spacious palace of the *ci-devant* electors of Cologne is appropriated: the professors will probably exceed 30 in number, having at their head A. W. de Schlegel, the well-known writer on dramatic poetry. The neighbouring city of Mentz, already strong both by nature and art, is about to receive additional fortifications as a principal hold of the Germanic confederation.

From the banks of the Rhine, Mr. O. directed his course to Paris by Metz, Verdun, and Chalons en Champagne. On entering the capital, he pledges himself to avoid the topics so often described by preceding travellers, and accordingly confines his remarks to the Pantheon, the grand entrance to the city from St. Germain, the beautiful and extensive burying-ground of Père la Chaise, and a few other topics much less familiar to the readers of tours than the Tuileries or the Louvre.

In forming an estimate of this book, we must use the privilege of critics by censuring several passages; such as the introduction (pp. 26. 32.) of frivolous conversations, and of expressions so unadvised as (p. 168.) 'I declare my almost unqualified approbation of every thing I saw.' Mr. O. makes a singular mistake in calculating that a family can be maintained and educated at Brussels for one third of the expence of Bath, or any other elegant town in England; the difference is *a third less* than Bath; 200l. in the one going as far as 300l. in the other. In other passages, however, he evinces more discrimination, and ventures (p. 166.) to maintain the general preservation of conjugal fidelity in a city whence the majority of our travelling countrymen imagine it, like Mr. J. Scott, to be almost *in toto* excluded. He is also perfectly right in declaring (p. 50.) that great pains are taken on the Continent to prevent

prevent 'the youthful eye or ear from being shocked by public improprieties.' — The printing of these Letters is very inaccurate.

CORRESPONDENCE.

' To the EDITOR of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

' Sir,

' *Bridgewater, 8th August, 1819.*

' In the Review for July, I observe mentioned "Some Remarks on the Natural History of the Black Stork, by George Montague, Esq." who was "indebted to his friend Mr. Austin for the possession of it." There are two inaccuracies in this account, but whether they have originated in the Transactions of the Linnéan Society, or not, I am not informed, as I have not seen the part of that work from which the account is taken. The errors I allude to are,—the adding an "e" to my late friend's name, who always spelt it "Montagu;"—and the name of the person who furnished him with the rare bird in question should have been that of the person who has the honour of addressing you, and under which it now stands in the British Museum. I am anxious these mistakes should be corrected, as otherwise they may lead in future to a doubt of the identity of the bird, and consequently of the singularity of its appearance in the British Islands.

' I am, Sir, your humble servant,

' ROBERT ANSTICE,

' *Collector of Customs, Bridgewater.*

' P. S. Dr. Leach of the British Museum will confirm my statement, if necessary.'

For the erroneous addition of the final *e* in spelling Mr. Montagu's name, we must be responsible: but the mistake of *Austin* for *Anstice* we derived from the Linnéan Transactions: in course not knowing that it was a mistake till the preceding letter apprized us of it.

We have received the letter from Bridgewater-Street, and will with pleasure attend to it as far as we can: but the subject is not exactly adapted to our pursuits and acquirements, and we are disposed honestly to plead *ignoramus* respecting it.

The frantic and palpably *false* letter of '*A Friend to Truth*' (*proh pudor!*) deserves no reply.

We cannot state the precise information for which Mr. Fischer asks, and shall not be disposed to give him any personal trouble in the matter in question.

* * * The APPENDIX to this Volume of the M. R. will be published with the Number for September, on the 1st of October.

☞ In the last Review, p. 329., title of Art. 22., for '*Reflection*,' read *Affection*.



THE
A P P E N D I X
TO THE
EIGHTY-NINTH VOLUME
OF THE
M O N T H L Y R E V I E W,
E N L A R G E D.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Notice Historique, &c.; i.e.* An Historical Sketch of the Finances of France, from 1800 to the First of April, 1814. By M. GAUDIN, formerly Duke of Gaëta, now Member of the Chamber of Deputies. 8vo. pp. 240. Paris. 1818.

IT seldom falls to our lot to report a work of so much importance as the present: which is the production of a man who was high in office, and who directed the finances of France not during the ephemeral reign of a party, but for the whole period of *Napoleon's* sway. He affords one more example that the government of *Bonaparte* was depraved chiefly in what regarded himself; and that several of his ministers, like *Macdonald*, *Marmont*, and *Reynier* among his Generals, were men who would have done honour to a better master. The conduct of M. GAUDIN, during his whole ministry, was not only above the suspicion of personal corruption, but was marked by a steady spirit of justice towards the public creditors: nor was he, like most of his official brethren, a child of the Revolution: his family had long been respectable; and he, after a careful education, was introduced into the service of the Treasury as early as the year 1774. His situation in this office was at first subordinate, but led to advancement which was progressive during twenty years; until a season arrived in which the lawless measures of the Jacobins put an end to all systematic business, and even endangered the lives

of those who did not blindly subscribe to their enormities. At this time (1794), M. GAUDIN resigned, and remained three years in retirement. Being subsequently induced to return to Paris, he came at first only in the capacity of a financial adviser, and did not accept the office of minister until the end of 1799, when circumstances afforded a well grounded hope that his plans for the re-establishment of public credit would not be thwarted by wanton or arbitrary interference on the part of government; and in this situation he remained till the restoration of the Bourbons in 1814. His object in the book now under review is to present a sketch of the principal plans which he brought into operation, while thus officially employed; vindicating them from the charges adduced against them by the Royalists; and proving that he acted on a regular system in adopting resolutions, which his adversaries allege to have been dictated either by the urgency of the moment or by the peremptory command of the sovereign. These different measures are exhibited not with a reference to general heads, but in the succession of their occurrence: a method which is far from being conducive to perspicuity; and which to a mere English reader, unacquainted with the official terms of French finance, would be almost unintelligible. In analyzing the observations of the author, we shall follow a different plan; classing the more important of them under general titles; and intreating our readers, if, after all our care, the detail be devoid of *agrément*, to keep in mind that financial discussions are at all times uninviting, but that the importance of the conclusions afford some indemnity for the dryness of the labour. The heads most appropriate to this purpose appear to be

I. The Changes in the Plan of Taxation in France.

II. The State of the National Debt since the Revolution.

III. Fluctuations in the Revenue.

Changes in the Plan of Taxation.—Though the proportion of taxes imposed on the land has ever been greater in France than in England, the difference was not remarkable before the Revolution. At that time, the large sum of ten or twelve millions sterling (nearly half the national revenue) was raised in France by taxes on consumption; viz. on salt, wine, brandy, tobacco, stamps, leather, and foreign articles imported. All these were abrogated in 1791 by the National Assembly; who knew that this was an effectual way to establish the Revolution in the hearts of the people; and who flattered themselves with finding an equivalent for the enormous sacrifice, partly in the issue of *assignats*, partly in an increased impost on land and houses. We shall explain in a subsequent

quent paragraph the miserable defalcation that ensued, and which the Executive Directory did not venture to make good by the re-imposition of taxes on consumption, either in those years (1796 and 1797) in which it governed with liberality, or at the time when (1798 and 1799) it had excluded *Carnot* and *Barthélémy* from among its members, and had ventured to re-assume the unjust and oppressive tone of the Jacobins. Even *Bonaparte* proceeded with very cautious steps in re-imposing those duties, which were calculated to awaken in the French nation the belief that the benefits of the Revolution were illusory; and it was not until after he had concluded a peace first with Austria, and next with England, that his finance-minister was instructed to take the system seriously into consideration. Till that period, the sole tax on consumption during a number of years had been on snuff, which yielded only 80,000*l.*, with some petty dues collected at the entrances into towns, which were appropriated to hospitals under the soothing name of *Octrois de bienfaisance*: — but in 1804 the power of *Bonaparte* had acquired a solid basis, and the war with England called imperiously for an increase of revenue; recourse was therefore had to the experiment of taxes on consumption, under the direction of a central board at Paris called *Bureau des Droits réunis*. The articles first taxed were snuff, beer, and distilled spirits; and these, without yielding a large return, had the effect of shewing that taxes on consumption were less unacceptable to the people than burdens of a different kind: a fact already exemplified in the case of the local imposts of Paris, where a portion of the *mobilier*, or tax on furniture, had been commuted for an addition to the *octroi*, or dues on the articles introduced into the town: the Parisians actually considering themselves as relieved from the amount of the *mobilier*, because the increase of price in the consumable articles was too small to fix their attention. Here, adds the author, was shewn the importance of keeping a pecuniary demand as much as possible out of sight, and of inducing individuals to blend the payment of imposts with the disbursements for the support of a family, or other unavoidable expence. Taxes on consumption possess this advantage in an eminent degree; and we need not apprehend, he adds, that the *ratio* will be carried to excess by an enlightened government, which must be aware that to go beyond the proper medium is the sure means of lessening the product. Such taxes require, it is true, a host of subordinate officers to enforce the collection, and an almost inquisitorial inspection of the proceedings of the manufacturers of the articles burdened: but all these evils are less serious than the hard

and even ruinous operation of direct taxation when carried to an extreme. It was accordingly from taxes on consumption that the French revenue derived its chief increase. After 1805, the duties on liquors and salt became substantially productive, and the whole of the excise or *droits réunis* yielded above four millions sterling: in 1807 the mode of collection received considerable improvement, particularly in relieving the distillers, the brewers, and other manufacturers of liquors from the payment of the duty, and levying it only on the removal of the liquor for the purpose of sale.

The pressure of excise-duties in France is much smaller on the rural part of the population than on the towns, many of the dues being payable only at the introduction of the commodities within the precincts of the towns: which arises not from any disposition to favour the peasantry, but from several of the most important articles, such as wine, brandy, and cyder, being manufactured in detached houses in the country, and being of course much less accessible to the government-officer than the great distilleries and breweries of our country. At Paris, the collection of dues and the prevention of the illicit introduction of consumable articles are materially facilitated by a great circular wall, which was built shortly before the Revolution, and which confines the passage of goods to the *barrières*, or public gates.

Salt and Tobacco.—These articles are intitled to a separate notice, not only as important in their amount, but from being subject to a separate and peculiar mode of management. The salt-tax has long been an object of anxious consideration in France. Nothing could be more ill devised or more tyrannical than the old system of the *Gabelle*, so much the object of complaint before the Revolution; which consisted in an obligation on each family, however poor, to purchase from the government-warehouse a quantity of salt at a price frequently so high as 5d. or 6d. per lb. The salt so purchased was called *sel de devoir*, and could be appropriated only to the daily use of the individuals: to employ it in salting provisions exposed the parties to a penalty. Each family being compelled to purchase a quantity proportioned to the number of its inmates, the poor could find no relief from economical management; while, to complete this mixture of oppression and absurdity, a number of individuals in easy circumstances were exempted from the tax by the purchase of a government-privilege. This odious impost was abolished early in the Revolution; and salt continued duty-free until 1806, when *Bonaparte* ventured to burden it once more, but in a way altogether different from the *Gabelle*: the new duty being collected

lected from the manufacturer, and interfering in no degree with the detail of the consumption. A part of this tax is derived from a lease of the great salt-mines near the Eastern frontier of France: but the conditions are that the undertakers, who hold the lease, shall be subjected to a progressive increase of duty in proportion to the increase of their manufacture. — With regard to tobacco, or rather snuff, the change that took place was of later date, having been introduced only in 1811; and, as the author asserts, in consequence of a general opinion that the profits accruing to the various manufacturers of the article went beyond all legitimate bounds. Be this as it may, the government of *Bonaparte* determined to do what had long been done by the government of the Bourbons; viz. to restrict the cultivation of the article to specific districts, and make an absolute monopoly of the manufacture. The experiment was completely successful; the monopoly has been retained by the Bourbons, and continues to be productive of considerable revenue: the question of throwing open the culture of tobacco was keenly agitated in the Chamber of Deputies so lately as last April, but was decided in the negative; and an act passed which allowed government to retain the exclusive manufacture and sale during the ensuing seven years.

Though the French may in many respects be ranked among the most patient and acquiescent subjects in Europe, they do not submit to taxation so quietly as either our countrymen or the Dutch. — In a commercial state, the payer of a tax obtains or flatters himself that he obtains an equivalent in the enhanced price of his merchandise or labour; while, in a country like France, the sum exacted by the Exchequer is generally considered as an absolute sacrifice on the part of the individual. *Bonaparte*, even in the height of his prosperity, was obliged to relinquish several taxes; in 1807 he rescinded a duty on men-servants and carriages, which was imposed eight years before, but had given rise to a multiplicity of complaints. A more important abandonment, and one that will sound somewhat strange to English readers, was the turnpike-dues collected throughout the kingdom for the repair of the roads: the latter cost annually above 1,500,000*l.*, while the tax produced scarcely half the money; and it was relinquished because the public imagined that the toll-collectors made enormous profits, and complained that a discouragement on the conveyance of merchandise was the most oppressive of all imposts. There is not, accordingly, a single toll or turnpike at present in all France.

National Debt of France.—This is a subject of no small complexity, confused as the finances have been both by the convulsions of the Revolution and by the attempts of each successive party to conceal the disorder. M. Necker retired finally from the ministry of finance on the 3d of September 1790; and on that day a Committee of the National Assembly, at the head of which was *Camus*, made a comprehensive report on the state of the public debt, the substance of which was as follows :

Consolidated annuities, or interest payable for a perpetuity, as in England,	-	-	-	Sterling.
Interest of a loan of 6,000,000 <i>l.</i> sterling, secured on the church-lands,	-	-	-	£ 2,800,000
Interest payable on various sums deposited by public accountants and other holders of offices of public trust: the aggregate of these deposits was 18,000,000 <i>l.</i> , but, the offices being always honourable, and in some cases profitable, the interest paid by government was greatly below the current rate, being for the whole only	-	-	-	245,000
The National Assembly having decreed that these deposits should be refunded, and the majority of the public officers removed, it became necessary to borrow an equivalent sum at 5 per cent., causing an additional interest of	-	-	-	400,000
The public treasury farther owed, on engagements payable at a short date,	£4,300,000			500,000
Loans effected on condition of repaying the principal by fixed instalments,	-	-	-	22,500,000
Computed value of the <i>dîmes in-féodées</i> , or tithes of lay impropriators,	-	-	-	4,000,000
Computed arrears of the departmental administrations,	-	-	-	5,000,000
			35,800,000	
Interest of which at 5 per cent. is	-	-	-	1,790,000
				<u>£5,735,000</u>

To this amount of permanent interest, which is small for so great a country as France, must be added for life-annuities the large sum of 4,300,000*l.*; it having been the practice there, much more than in England, to effect loans on the plan of

of a life-interest. The revenue of France was then about twenty-two millions sterling; which, deducting the ten millions in the preceding table, left twelve millions sterling for the army, navy, civil list, and other expences of government.

Such was the state of the French finances in 1790 and 1791, years replete with changes in the interior, though exempt from the calamity of war: but in 1792 the contest which commenced with Austria and Prussia absorbed the funds intended for the relief of the national creditors: it was followed in 1793 by a contest still more serious with Great Britain, and eventually by the overthrow of all political order in the horrors of Jacobinism. The interest on the public debt was now suspended, but there was no confiscation of the capital even in the dreadful day of *Robespierre*. At last, in 1798, the cessation of war with Austria, and an approximation to regularity in the management of the interior affairs of France, led to the following law on the subject of the national debt: viz. "That of the existing public stock two-thirds should bear no interest, and should be of no value except in payment of purchases of national property: but that one-third (called the *Tiers provisoire*) should be a sacred debt on the part of the state, and should bear interest from 21. March, 1798, such interest being payable in *bons*, or paper admissible in discharge of taxes." The amount of stock comprized under this sweeping edict was not merely the old stock specified in the preceding table, but an additional sum of nearly forty millions sterling; partly the arrears of military and naval pay which accrued in the years 1795, 1796, and 1797, after the depreciation of the *assignats*; partly the proceeds of mercantile captures which the government had, by some extraordinary means, contrived to borrow from the owners of privateers.

This law was in force at the time of *Bonaparte's* usurpation in the end of 1799: every description of government-security was then extremely depreciated; and the *tiers provisoire* was not worth 20 per cent. in cash, while the other two-thirds had fallen to the incredibly low price of 2 or 3 per cent. of their nominal amount. It was of the highest importance to give a value to the new stock about to be created; and the task was not hopeless, when we consider the small proportion which the interest of the existing debt (only two millions sterling) bore to the resources of so great a country as France. With this view, the Duke of *Gaëta* proceeded to fund in the five per cent. stock, or, as the French express it, to grant *inscriptions au grand livre*, first for the floating debt, which consisted chiefly in the unpaid demands of army-con-

tractors, and next for the old national debt, taking it over in its new shape of one-third and two-thirds: the former, or *tiers provisoire*, was funded without any deduction, that is 100l. stock was given for 100l. of the *tiers*: but the other two-thirds were funded at a very reduced rate, only 5l. in stock being given for 100l. in *bons*. Some time afterward, government pledged itself to pay the interest of the public debt in cash instead of the *bons* receivable in discharge of the taxes: this change bore date from 21. March, 1800; yet such was the penury of the treasury, that neither the victory of Marengo nor the treaties of Luneville and Amiens enabled the finance-minister to discharge the dividends when due: eight or nine months were still allowed to elapse; and it was not till 1803 that this irregularity was corrected.

It suited the policy of *Bonaparte* to affect, in the early part of his reign, great attention to the claims of the national creditors; and with this view a "Board of Liquidation" was appointed to receive the representations of all applicants: but the labours of the Board seemed to relax exactly in proportion as the power of their master became consolidated*; and that the amount thus added to the public debt was inconsiderable is apparent from the fact that the total annual interest of that debt was only 2,600,000l. sterling in 1810, the time when this Board was declared by an Imperial order to have terminated its labours, all farther claims being thenceforth inadmissible.

The small amount of the public debt under *Napoleon* arose certainly not from any caution in borrowing on the part of that gigantic projector, but from the distrust that invariably hangs over a despotic government. The additions, that were successively made to it, were derived not from loans (which were impracticable) but from the endowments conferred on such bodies as the Senate and Legion of Honour, or from compulsory investments on the part of hospitals, universities, and other old establishments; which were taught to consider the French five per cents. as the proper fund for depositing any money that they could realize from the sale of their lands or houses. A more general measure of this nature took place after the unfortunate campaign of 1812; yet so difficult was it to procure money in exchange for stock that, at the time of *Bonaparte's* overthrow in 1814, the interest of the funded debt did not amount to 4,500,000l.

* See Sir Francis d'Ivernois' work intitled *Napoleon Administrateur et Financier*.

sterling :

sterling*: to which, however, it would soon have been necessary to add nearly 2,000,000*l.* more, on funding the floating debt which had rapidly augmented during the preceding disasters.

This was the condition of the French finances in 1814; a condition by no means unfavourable when compared with that of the other great belligerent powers, as we manifested at considerable length in our report (Appendix to Vol. lxxviii. December, 1815,) of the valuable work of M. Bignon. The French stocks were now put under the safeguard of a legitimate government, and were likely to experience a rapid rise by the influx of capital from England and Holland, when the fatal return from Elba overthrew their credit, and added eventually nearly eighty millions sterling to the public debt. Another year must now elapse ere the final contributions to the allies can be paid and funded: but it is not in the mean time remote from the truth to state the total interest of the French debt, funded and unfunded, at eleven millions sterling; equal, allowing for the difference in the value of money, to fifteen millions in England.

Among other imitations of English finance in the reign of *Bonaparte*, was the institution of a sinking fund: but this, as the author acknowledges, (p. 176.) was speedily diverted from its professed object, the commissioners doing little more than raising a few millions for the public treasury by the sale of stock, under the new name of *Bons de la Caisse d'Amortissement*. With respect to liquidating the debt, their labours did not accomplish the payment of more than a million sterling in ten years. At present, the sinking fund is more active, and accomplishes an annual payment of nearly two millions.

Fluctuations in the Revenue of France. — After these observations on particular taxes, and on the varying price of the stocks, it is time to bestow attention on the revenue at large. We have already seen that the National Assembly abolished in 1791 almost all the taxes on consumption, and attempted to replace them by two great substitutes; the assignats, and a tax on property. The latter consisted of the *foncier*, or tax on land and houses, computed at 10 millions sterling (one-fifth of the rent), and of a *mobilier* or tax on furniture and moveable property, which was expected to produce 2½ millions more. These sums were destined for the public treasury, but a considerable per centage on both was added for departmental and local changes, making a total of 16 millions sterling, to be raised from these sources.

* Bignon, *Exposé Comparatif*.

In the confusion of the Revolution, however, the arrangements for the new taxes were miserably delayed; and, the payment of the old taxes being almost totally suspended, the burden of the national expenditure was borne by the assignats. The credit of that paper was long sustained by the public ardour in the cause of the Revolution; and, when shaken by vast issues, it received a temporary support from the sanguinary decrees of Jacobinism. At last, in 1796, the assignats were definitively so much depreciated, that government was obliged to have recourse to a forced loan, and preserved its credit only by the success of the armies.

Even this source of support had received a shock in 1799, when *Bonaparte* seized the helm, and prevailed on the Duke of *Gaëta* to undertake the arduous office of finance-minister. The first and grand object was to find a supply for the opening of the campaign; after which, military successes would, it was hoped, lay the foundation of permanent credit. The prediction was fulfilled; and the minister relates (pp. 30. 32. 34.) the method by which provision was made for the equipment of those armies which in the early part of 1800 atchieved such memorable successes under *Moreau* in Germany and under *Bonaparte* in Italy;—successes followed first by an armistice with Austria, next by the peace of Luneville, and finally by that of Amiens.

Never was there a more urgent call for victory abroad or for an improved administration at home. At the time of *Bonaparte's* usurpation, the expenditure exceeded the receipt by eight millions sterling per annum, and the taxes had been allowed to fall into arrear to such a degree that above 16 millions sterling were unpaid, which could not be collected. The task of preparing the assessment-tables (*confection des rôles*) had been left by an inconceivable miscalculation to the different *communes* or parishes; and, as these petty districts warded off as long as possible the acknowledge-ment of their debts, the Executive Directory had appointed a host of inspectors, whose salaries caused an annual charge of 200,000*l.* to very little purpose. The Duke of *Gaëta* obtained the removal of most of these unproductive agents, and resorted to the former plan of provincial directors and inspectors. Still the first year of his ministry (1800) was a period of great pecuniary embarrassment: the arrears of the taxes continued undischarged: in vain government granted a large specified deduction on both the *foncier* and *mobilier*; and it was found necessary to give the local authorities a general power to remit whatever they deemed requisite, provided that the parties paid their taxes punctually for the
current

current year. To this compromise the latter cheerfully assented, and regular receipts began to find their way into the treasury, which supplied a fund for the payment of the interest due on the public debt: the stocks began to recover from their depression: the national property, whether lands, houses, or forests, rose in value; and government was at last enabled to make its contracts at a fair price.

We come next to 1802, the only year of peace in the long reign of *Bonaparte*. Though he was as yet far from possessing the extent of power to which he afterward attained, this year was, in a financial view, the most prosperous of the whole; and it furnishes a complete answer to those superficial reasoners who allege that war and renewed successes were necessary to the stability of his government. Though the discharges among the military were very inconsiderable, and the army continued almost as numerous as in war, still a saving took place in the military department to the extent of two millions sterling; while a nearly equal sum was obtained by the increase of the customs, and the progressive improvements in the collection of the revenue. The receipts became at last almost adequate to the expenditure, the former being 19½ millions, the latter 20. Relieved at this time from the pressure of military avocations, *Bonaparte* gave a portion of his leisure to questions of revenue; and so pointed were his researches, that it was necessary for one of the higher officers of the treasury to appropriate his whole time and attention to supply the requisite answers. This led to a division of the duties of the finance-department; and M. GAUDIN, being now exempted from the inspection of the treasury, was enabled to confine himself altogether to the *administration des finances*.

During 1803 and 1804, the military operations were directed against England only, and, though attended with considerable expence, required none of those sudden exertions which derange the routine of treasury-arrangement. In 1805, the sudden rupture with Austria and Russia produced a very serious change, and led in France to one of those crises in banking transactions which nearly resemble the unfortunate stoppage in 1797, from which we are not even at present recovered. The notes of the Bank of France had been issued too largely from the time at which, in imitation of the kindred establishment in Threadneedle-Street, it had undertaken to pay the half-yearly dividends on the public debt. The effect of over-issue was a daily demand on the Bank for 10,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* sterling more than would otherwise have been required; a demand which was met by collecting money

in the country and bringing it up to Paris.* This plan proved expensive and inconvenient: but the scarcity of money was farther aggravated by the wants of the *fournisseurs* or contractors for stores, who, being paid by government not in money but long-dated securities, were obliged to apply to the Bank for large discounts. Such was the state of things in September, 1805, when the necessity of marching suddenly into Germany forced *Bonaparte* to call on the Bank for a great sum in notes, in return for a deposit of long dated securities. These securities could in no way be converted into cash by the Bank; and, the notes issued for them being rapidly presented for payment, the only alternative was the painful plan of reducing the accommodation to merchants in the discount of bills; a reduction which the mercantile body in London are so ill fitted to meet in the present season of peace and tranquillity, but which could evidently not be borne with impunity by their poorer brethren in France at a critical period of the war. Bankruptcies consequently ensued in great numbers; purchases were suspended; workmen were discharged by their masters, and several branches of manufacture were almost entirely relinquished: yet still *Bonaparte* did not venture, even after his victory at Jena, and the conquest of Prussia, to take the decisive step of making bank-notes a legal tender: the recollection of *assignats* was fresh in the public mind; and the only resource was a continued limitation of the issue for mercantile discounts, until the natural tendency of trade to return to a sound state at last produced the desired relief. It will not have escaped our readers that a similar limitation of mercantile discounts took place on the part of the Bank of France in the last winter, in consequence of the drain of specie for the allies; and the effects of this limitation are at present severely felt by the trade of France, although under any circumstances the circulation of bank-notes in that country is very limited, seldom exceeding four millions sterling.

After 1808, the financial machine was firmly fixed in France, and received that impulse which has been continued ever since with comparatively little deviation. Partial deductions (pp. 97. 151.) took place in the *foncier* or land-tax; and, although this, like other concessions of *Bonaparte*, could have no other object than to reconcile the public to some new burden, it is perfectly evident that, had he avoided the war with Spain, and been contented to keep his army within reasonable

* See Dupont de Nemours *Sur la Banque de France*; reported in *M. R.* Vol. lxi. p. 80.

bounds, a considerable annual surplus might have been afforded by the revenue. The territories successively added to the empire on the side of Italy and the Rhine were subjected, in several respects, to the same mode of taxation with France; and, as the financial assistants employed by the Duke of *Gaëta* were by this time thoroughly conversant with their business, the result was a surprizing improvement of the awkward and antiquated systems pursued by the previous governments. Here also we are reminded (pp. 211, 212.) of the striking difference between the lawless head of the French government and a number of the men whom he employed: two years not having elapsed after the occupancy of the papal state, when, by the simple expedient of suppressing useless monasteries and bringing to sale the lands belonging to them, the national debt contracted by the Pope was discharged, and a regular system introduced into the public finances. This part of French innovation his Holiness has made a point of maintaining: it was the work of *M. Janet*, a man of great respectability, who was instrumental likewise in discharging, by a partial sale of the national domains, the public debt of Florence. Similar praise is bestowed by the present author on the exertions of *M. de Sassy* in the department of the customs; of the Count *du Chatel* in that of the *Enregistrement*; and, finally, of the Count *Bergon* in the management of the national forests: — men who are not revolutionary adventurers, but possess the confidence of the Bourbon government.

With these and some other remarks of the same kind, the author closes all that he chuses to say on the territories conquered by his master. ‘I am concise on this head,’ he observes, ‘for two reasons; because my remarks could have no application to the actual state of France; and because the accompanying increase of expence was such as to leave the balance of the general revenue very nearly on the same footing as before.’ We looked with some eagerness for his communications on another delicate and important point, — the contributions received from foreign powers: but he is wholly silent with regard to them, and they do not, in fact, appear to have come under his management. They were made over to a separate fund, called the *Domaine extraordinaire de l’Empereur*, and appropriated to the payment of that enormous addition to the army which it was deemed expedient to conceal from the public eye. These contributions arose first from Spain, next from Austria after her disastrous campaign of 1805, and finally from Prussia after her still more calamitous struggle of 1806: the ultimate receipt would have

have been very great had not *Bonaparte*, by his unaccountable attempt on Spain, deprived his treasury of the largest and least doubtful of these external resources. This privation was followed by a very serious demand on the French revenue for the expence of the peninsular war. During 1808 and 1809, the resources of Spain were made available by the French, but in 1810 almost every kind of supply, whether in money or stores of corn, was exhausted; and, the drain on Paris proceeding with redoubled urgency, the French treasury, notwithstanding all the arrangements of the Duke of *Gaëta*, began to exhibit symptoms of penury. Happily for the repose of Europe, this want was greatly aggravated by the result of the Russian campaign in 1812: after that signal reverse, the adoption of new schemes became unavoidable; and one of the chief of these, as far as the interior of France was regarded, was an order for the sale of various houses and lands belonging to public bodies, that is, to towns and villages throughout the kingdom: the sale-price of them being to be paid to government in return for transfers of stock, the dividends on which would form an equivalent to the income formerly derived from the tenants of these petty occupancies. This comprehensive measure had only begun to become productive when the overthrow of *Bonaparte*, in the end of March, 1814, transferred the administration into other hands: it was carried on for some time under the Bourbons, but was suspended, injudiciously in the opinion of this writer, in the year 1816.

It remains to add a few words on the present amount of the revenue of France: we compute it, deducting the extra and temporary taxes imposed since 1815, at thirty millions sterling; leaving about nineteen millions for the army, navy, civil list, and departmental charges.—We inserted in our Appendix to our eighty-second volume, N. S. p. 464., a tabular statement of the revenue and expenditure of France for the preceding year, and it can answer no useful purpose to introduce a farther statement until the definitive liquidation of the contributions to the allies. The budget laid before the Chamber of Deputies, in March last, exhibits a revenue of thirty-six millions sterling: but of these, six millions arise from taxes which must be renounced in the course of a very few years.

We are now to take leave of the Duke of *Gaëta* as minister, and to make some remarks on his conduct when out of office. On the return of the Bourbons in 1814, Baron *Louis*, the new minister of finance, took occasion, in the first *Exposé* presented to the Chamber of Deputies, to impeach the accuracy of the statements of the budgets presented under the reign of *Bonaparte*; a charge which induced the Duke

of *Gaëta* to publish in his defence an explanatory pamphlet, in which he maintained that all the periodical statements of the French finance had been accurate, excepting the last, when the disasters of the year 1813 had necessitated a deviation from the language of candour. In reply again appeared a very able essay, intitled *Opinion d'un Créancier de l'Etat*, which was reported in our Appendix to vol. lxxviii. (December, 1815): but the controversy may be cut short by stating generally that the arithmetical tables in the French budgets under *Napoleon* were, for the most part, correct, while the *Exposé*, or general reasoning subjoined to these tables, was replete with the most fallacious allegations. The latter were no more the composition of the minister of finance than the address to the army on the 14th of June, 1815, was the act of *Soult*; or than the address to the Poles in 1812 was the composition of *Kosciusko*; although, in both cases, it suited the Machiavelian policy of the French ruler to affix such signatures to these documents. — On the return of *Bonaparte* from Elba, the Duke of *Gaëta*, believing in his promises of moderation, and unconscious, like the great majority of Frenchmen, of the real perfidy of his character, committed the impropriety of accepting the place of minister of finance: he, however, participated in no act that rendered him liable to subsequent animadversion. This acceptance was declared, on the king's second return, to have caused the forfeiture of his peerage: but he was forthwith elected a member of the Chamber of Deputies, to which he has ever since belonged; and where, without figuring as a speaker, for which he is qualified neither by his habits nor his delicate health, he has acted a very useful part as a member of financial committees. During a year after the second restoration, he voted frequently with the opposition: but, since the return of the court (in September, 1816,) to a liberal conduct towards the revolutionary party, he has in general been seen on the side of ministers. He was not, however, included in the number of those who were restored to their rank in the peerage by the very liberal nomination on the 5th of March last; so that the designation of Duke of *Gaëta*, though commonly conferred on him, is at present a title of courtesy.

The department of this minister embraced the operations of the mint of France, and we have in these pages several statements of the large quantities of new coin struck off in the reign of *Bonaparte*. From 1803 to 1814, the amount coined exceeded 56,000,000l. sterling; and, as the currency of France is almost entirely metallic, we probably do not over-rate the coin at present in the kingdom at eighty or 90,000,000l. sterling. — On this part of the book it does not

seem of much importance to enlarge : but we cannot conclude our report without an abstract of the author's observations on a subject which must have frequently met the eye of our readers in paragraphs on French finance ; and which, from our having nothing of the kind, is very imperfectly understood in England.

Cadastré, or general Survey of Land and Houses. — An accurate survey and valuation of the houses and lands of France is of the greatest importance to the revenue of that country. The annual rental of land throughout the kingdom is computed by the Duke (pp. 118. 200.) at between fifty and sixty millions sterling ; and, as the income derived from trade and manufactures is far inferior, it is obviously necessary to impose the chief burden on real property. The plan adopted in the income-tax of England, of regulating the charge by the rent, does not seem practicable in France ; where land is very generally divided into an infinity of petty occupancies, the property of the humble cultivators : hence the necessity of a general survey and record, on the plan of the celebrated Domesday-book of our Saxon ancestors. The French seldom shine in arrangements that require much previous combination, and the plan of this national valuation has been repeatedly changed. The first law on this subject (23d September, 1791,) contained directions for a minute survey of every lot of land in the kingdom, under the title of *Cadastré parcellaire* : but, as this work seemed almost endless, an attempt was made to form a general estimate *par masses de culture* ; that is, by making a survey of a certain number of districts in each department, as a ground of computation for the produce of all other districts in the kingdom under similar culture. These surveys took place in 1800 *communes* or parishes : but the officers employed in making them soon felt that nothing could be more imperfect than general conclusions founded on *data* that were perpetually varying. The inequalities resulting from an unqualified application of them would have been great beyond conception ; for, while some land-holders would not have paid above five per cent. on their income, others would have been taxed at thirty and even forty per cent. Still a temporary experiment was made, and a provision introduced into the law to allow the claims for surcharge in all cases in which evidence was given of paying more than twenty per cent. on the yearly produce : the claims proved almost innumerable ; and, after having expended 800,000*l.* in this abortive attempt, the French government felt the necessity of returning to the original plan of a *cadastré parcellaire*. The direction of this

new labour devolved on the Duke of *Gaëta*; who called to Paris several provincial collectors, as well as eminent land-surveyors, and placed them under the guidance of the well known *Delambre*, with instructions to devise a plan of calculating the value of land not by comparative estimate, but by ascertaining the kind of culture for which each separate property, or the different parts of each property, were best fitted. This took place in 1807: certain preliminary rules were adopted and transmitted to the prefects of the different departments; after which a survey and valuation on a new plan were begun throughout France.

Eleven years have now been devoted to this important operation: but the magnitude of the task, and the endless delays interposed by the objections of individuals, have so much retarded its progress, that only one-fourth of the kingdom is yet definitively valued. Enough, however, has been done to detect very important errors in the preceding survey, and to subject to taxation a variety of lots which had escaped payment during more than twenty years. To such a length had this system of partiality or oversight been carried, that in one canton (p. 206.) not less than 12,000 acres had remained untaxed, although the vigilance of the neighbouring proprietors ought to have been awakened to a neglect which operated to the increase of their burdens; each district being obliged, under the old system, to contribute a specific sum. It would be tedious to enter into the details of either mode of valuation; and we shall merely observe that the original plan, after having declared the *quantum* imposed on each *commune*, or parish, delegated to the local land-holders the task of apportioning it among each other: while, under the second system, government supply land-measurers and accountants, who proceed on an uniform method, and perform this very laborious task at a much smaller sacrifice both of time and money. The rule is, when the survey and valuation of a district are made, to deliver a copy of the papers on each lot to its proprietor; who, after having examined and reported on them, hands them over to the assembly of the district, (*canton*), before whom a farther examination and correction, if necessary, take place previously to the final transmission to the prefect of the department. The time required for the complete valuation of the kingdom will be greater or less according to the number of persons employed, and the grants of public money allotted to this purpose: but, meanwhile, throughout three-fourths of France, the *foncier* is collected on the basis of the original *cadastre*.

Public Forests. — The care of the public forests in England is an object with government as far as it regards a supply of timber for the navy: but in France these forests are much more extensive, and afford a regular revenue; there being an annual sale of wood from them to the public for fuel, carpenters' work, boat-building, and the various purposes to which timber is applicable; and the amount of sales is now from seven to 800,000*l.* sterling a year. An improvident consumption has long since taken place concerning the forests in the adjacency of the sea*: at present, the chief national property of this description is inland, particularly in the mountainous tract that forms the border between France and Switzerland. These and other public forests were miserably mismanaged in the confusion of the Revolution; large tracts were alienated for a trifling purchase-money; and, in those that were preserved, timber was felled in quantity without either method or selection. At last, in 1801, the whole was put under the charge of a special board; and the result of this judicious division of labour was the attainment in France of as great a saving as the appointment of a Transport Board procured to us in this country, in a very different department of the public service. The most satisfactory improvements were made in the mode of managing the forests; a fact, says the Duke of Gaëta, that was amply acknowledged by those emigrants who, on returning to France, were put in possession of their patrimonial property. A notion of economy has led the Bourbon ministry to suppress this board, and transfer its duties to the *Administration de l'Enregistrement*: but the latter is already overcharged with business; and the government, if it persist in this mistaken change, will soon lose in the diminished return from the forests ten or perhaps twenty times the amount of the saving in salaries.

We must now take leave of this *Notice Historique*; which, if too much occupied by official detail to be a popular book, is amply intitled to the attention of all who make a study of the finances of our neighbours. The author possesses a much more studious and retired character than we commonly discover in France; making no attempt to figure as an orator in the chambers, and in his written composition giving evidently more attention to matter than to style. The perusal of this volume is consequently rather a task than a pleasure, but a task in which the perseverance of the reader is not allowed to go without reward.

* Herbin de la Halle *Sur les Bois*; Paris, 1813. See M. R. Vol. lxxii. p. 503.

ART. II. *Correspondance inédite, &c.; i.e.* The unpublished Correspondence of the Abbé FERDINAND GALIANI, Counsellor of the King of Naples, with Madame d'Epinay, Baron d'Holbach, Baron Grimm, and other celebrated Persons of the 18th Century. Printed from the Autograph MSS. of the Author, and revised and illustrated with Notes by M. * * *, Member of several Academies. Preceded by Historical Notices of the Life and Writings of the Author, by the late Ginguéné; with Notes by M. Salfé; and the Dialogue on Women, by M. GALIANI. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 18s.

WITH all due deference for the lively sensation excited by the notice of an edition of the Abbé GALIANI's letters, and for the zeal which created two parallel editions, the one from his original papers and the other from copies of them, we cannot help thinking that the world could have gone on very well without them. The Abbé was undoubtedly a clever talker, and is represented to have contributed to the good-humour which reigned at Madame Geoffrin's parties, in no small degree. Where "*soyons aimables*" was the device, he held a high rank; and his letters, when weighed against the every-day nothings that fatigue the post, are well enough. "The Abbé GALIANI," says *Marmontel*, "was in person the prettiest little harlequin that Italy had produced: but on the shoulders of this harlequin rested the head of *Machiavelli*. Epicurean in his philosophy, having a mind tinged with melancholy, yet accustomed to see all things in a ridiculous point of view, there was no subject in politics or morals on which he had not some pleasant tale to tell; and these little stories had always the neatness of pertinency to the subject in review, with the piquancy of an unforeseen and unexpected allusion. Figure to yourself, with all this, an elegance the most natural in his manner and gesticulation, and conceive the pleasure that we felt in contrasting the profound sense couched in the story with the playful air of the reciter. I do not exaggerate in saying that we could forget ourselves for hours together in the delight of hearing him. But, when his part was played, he sank into nothingness; and melancholy and mute, in a corner, he had the appearance of waiting for the signal to enter again on the stage. His reasonings were like his stories: it was necessary to listen. If interrupted, he used to say, 'Permit me to finish: you will have enough time to reply;' and when, after a long circle of inductions (for this was his manner), he at length concluded, he avoided a reply, if he perceived that one was intended, hid himself in the crowd, and escaped." In a word, we find that, although

no one would have thought of making a friend of him, he had wit to his very fingers' ends.

In the advertisement to this work, we are told not to expect 'pleasantries in the letters of GALIANI, but profound reflections, moral lessons,' &c. The book should have been annexed to the *Memoirs of Mad. d'Epinay*, (see our last Appendix); and so it would certainly have been, but for the truth of the former and partiality of the latter part of this remark. Undoubtedly, few pleasantries are to be discovered in these letters: but it is also true that the profound reflections are as few as the specimens of humour and gaiety. The dulness of the book, indeed, has produced a delay in our notice of it: we have tried and tried again, but after all we can make nothing of it; so just is the remark that

"True no-meaning puzzles more than wit."

The notice of his life tells us that FERDINAND GALIANI was born at Chieti in 1728; and that at sixteen years of age he chose for an academical subject the state of money at the time of the siege of Troy, succeeded in obtaining the prize, and ever afterward addicted himself preferably to this study. When eighteen, he undertook to write on the antient history of navigation in the Mediterranean; and, rejecting the fictions of poets, he endeavoured to throw a light on the manners and commerce of the nations bordering on that sea in the most remote antiquity. It was usual in the school, as at places of education in our own country, to honour (or, more properly speaking, to incur) the memoirs of kings and nobles, who might happen to die, with collections of verses to which all the academicians contributed. The hangman of Naples died; and, on occasion of his death, GALIANI, with the aid of a friend, put together a collection, in which he imitated so exactly the style and manner of each senior academician, that one of them confessed that he should have been deceived, had he not been positively certain that the composition signed with his name was not his own. This volume of pleasantry appeared in 1749.—His principal works are a *Treatise on Money*, and his *Dialogues on Corn*. He made a collection of the volcanic stones and substances which are thrown from Vesuvius, and, with a dissertation on the phænomena, sent them to Pope Benedict XIV., with this inscription on the chest, taken from the Scriptures: "*Beatissime pater, fac ut lapides isti panes fiant.*" The result was the canonicate of *Amalfi*, of which the revenue was 400 ducats. He was engaged by his master, the King of Naples, Charles III., as an associate with the antiquaries who were forming, at the desire of the same monarch,

the academy of Herculaneum, and inserted many articles in the first splendid volume of the *Antichità dell' Ercolano*. In 1759, he visited France as secretary of embassy; where the originality of his conversation, and those powers which we have before mentioned, introduced him to the best Parisian world, and gained for him the character of "*bon enfant*" wherever he associated.

On returning to his own country, he made merry with an eruption of Vesuvius, and kept up a constant correspondence with his friends at Paris; indeed, his letters are chiefly the repositories of his sleepless regret at being condemned to endure life at that distance from the happy and brilliant circles in which he was so well calculated to play his part. He died at the age of fifty-nine.

To Madame d'Epinay's expression of sorrow on the death of *Helvetius*, he answers:

' Were it worth while, my dear Madam, to weep over the dead, I would come to weep with you on the death of *Helvetius*: but death is nothing else than the regret of the living. If we regret him not, he is not dead; as, if we had never known him, he would never have been born. All that exists does so exist in us with relation to ourselves. Remember that the little prophet was accustomed to be metaphysical when out of spirits, and I am so at present. But, in short, the evil of the loss of *Helvetius* is the void left in the line of the battalion. Let us take close order, then; let us who remain love each other more, and the loss will not appear. I, who am the Major of this unhappy regiment, say to you all, "Close your ranks: forward: fire;" and no trace will appear of our loss. His daughters have lost neither youth nor beauty by the death of their father, but have obtained the rank of heiresses. Why would you lament their lot! They will marry, no doubt.

" *Cet oracle est plus sûr que celui de Calchas.*"

His wife is more to be pitied, unless she can find a son-in-law as reasonable as her husband, which is no easy matter: but easier at Paris than elsewhere. There are yet much morality, much virtue, and heroism, in your Paris; much more, believe me, than in other places; — and this makes me regret it, and will probably induce me to revisit it.'

The following is perhaps a favourable specimen of the author's more serious powers:

' To Madame d'Epinay.

' You really play me occasionally an abominable trick, my fair lady: I see a large packet arrive from you; I am delighted before I open it, in expectation of a paragon of a letter, and, instead of writing to me, I find that you have been transcribing a long extract from *Voltaire* for my amusement! I ought in revenge to trans-

transcribe another from my breviary for your service. I own, however, that *Voltaire's* article intitled *Curiosity* is superb, sublime, novel, and true. I acknowledge that he is throughout right, excepting that he omits to describe curiosity as a passion, or, if you will, a sensation excited in us only at times when we feel ourselves in perfect security, and when our thoughts are engaged only with matters that regard ourselves alone: hence the origin of all theatrical spectacles. Begin by assuring places to the spectators; then display before their eyes some grand catastrophe: all the world will run thither, and be interested in the representation. This leads to another truism, which is, that the better the spectator is placed, and the greater the risk of the hero of the piece, the more the former is interested; and this is the key and whole secret of the tragic, comic, and epic art. It is necessary to represent persons in a situation the most embarrassing to spectators who enjoy a perfect tranquillity. So true is it that we must begin by putting the spectators at their ease; for, if rain or a hot sun should penetrate to the boxes, the theatre would be abandoned; and this is a reason why, in every dramatic or epic poem, the versification should be happy, the language natural, and the diction pure. Every bad, obscure, or perplexed verse is a gust of air penetrating the chinks of the boxes. It makes the spectator suffer; and then farewell to the pleasure of curiosity! Lucretius therefore is not far from the mark. Although we do not notice or develope the sensation of our happiness when curiosity commences in us, it is true that instinctively it cannot operate without this preamble. Thus curiosity is a constant consequence of idleness, repose, and security. Hence Paris is the capital of curiosity. Lisbon, Naples, and Constantinople are almost strangers to the sensation. If a nation be curious and inquisitive, it forms a great eulogy on a government.—*Voltaire* should have made another reflection on curiosity, which is very interesting; viz. that curiosity is a sensation peculiar to man, unique in man, and not common to him with any other animal. Brutes have not even a conception of it. If beasts shew some signs which appear to us to partake of curiosity, fear only is the impulse, and nothing more. Now, according to my hypothesis, fear is the reverse of curiosity. If curiosity be impossible to brutes, the curious man is more *man* than any other of the species; and that is in fact true. Newton was so curious that he searched the causes of the lunar motions and of the tides. The most curious nation possesses, therefore, more *men* than any other nation. This is the finest eulogy that was ever passed on the boobies of Paris. The idea is profound, and I have not time to give it you in detail. Assuredly *Voltaire* has not written his article on curiosity more rapidly than I have. He has written better, because he knows its language: but if you will give yourself the trouble to develope what I have scribbled, you will see one great aim of the human heart; man, the curious animal; man, susceptible of emotions from grand spectacles. Almost all the sciences are but *curiosities*, and the key of all is a basis of

security, and a situation free from suffering in the curious animal. *Voltaire* is but little acquainted with animals. He has spoken of monkeys and of dogs like a child. The monkey is not *curious*. When it seeks its nutriment, having no smell and but little instinct, it is obliged to break every thing and touch every thing: naturally, it feeds only on fruits and oysters; it believes therefore every thing to be composed of cocoa nuts, chesnuts, and oysters; and consequently it breaks every thing with its teeth to obtain the kernel. Dogs have no curiosity: they are frightened when unaccustomed to go out in a carriage, and put their head out at the door from a wish to escape: but, when they see the stones of the pavement appear to tremble and run, they dare not leap out, and bark from fear. When once accustomed to a carriage, they are tranquil. No brute animal is *curious*.'

The above extracts are, we fear, rather favourable specimens of these volumes: but, though literature would not have suffered by the loss of this collection, it sometimes gives proofs of an active and strong mind: degraded, indeed, by the ambition of attaining a conciseness bordering on the unintelligible, and a rapidity partaking too much of pertness; united with an indifference even on subjects that should interest the feelings, which savours of the heartless. The Abbé devoted a considerable part of his life to the illustration of Horace, and is said to have left papers of which the publication would be highly valuable; a commentary on Horace; the poet's life, as usual, drawn up from the evidence of his works; and a treatise on the natural inclinations of man, on his habits, and on the right of nature and of mankind, taken also from his compositions. It is remarked that

'GALIANI first established that some of the names of Horace's mistresses are Greek; such as Galatea, Asteria, Lalage, Pholoe, &c.; that others are Latin, as Canidia, Gratidia, Julia, &c. From the first of these distinctions, he infers that all the poems which Horace had addressed to Grecian ladies belonged to his earlier age; that is to say, to the epoch when he lived in Apulia, at Venusium, Bari, Tarentum, &c.; and that the others were composed in his happier days, when he lived at Rome, or in some Latin towns. GALIANI placed in a third class the theatrical names of Glycera, Lydia, Pyrrha, Næra, Chloe, &c., names which we find used in antient plays, and which he supposes to be allotted to actresses off the stage, on account of the reputation which they had acquired at the theatre. Such names he considers as a public and constant testimony of the admiration of the spectator.'

The above classification of names professes more than it performs. All of them are equally derivable, and are there-

fore to be supposed equally theatrical; and we hope, for the credit of these commentaries, that such idle subdivisions are confined simply to the names of persons.

It appears to be determined by the Parisians to illustrate the age of their philosophers and free-thinkers equally with the sempiternal æra of Louis XIV.: but really we must say, "*something too much of this.*" The attempt to make great men of personages whose talents were purely of the ephemeral rank, and the *curiosa infelicitas* of publishing every thing, and almost of every one, must, with the surfeit, produce a suspicion of the press; and a volume too much may be written even on the brilliancy which surrounded the æra of Louis XIV., on the debaucheries of the regent and Louis XV., and on the philosophy which ushered in the Revolution.

ART. III. *Précis des Événemens Militaires, &c.; i.e. A Summary of Military Events, or Historical Essays on the Campaigns from 1779 to 1814; by General Count MATHIEU DUMAS. 8vo. Vols. VII. and VIII., including the Campaigns of the Year 1802. With Folio Atlas. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.*

IN proportion to the length of time which has elapsed since the European world ceased to offer the formidable aspect of a theatre of war, limited only by the interminable deserts that separate it from Asia, we have expected to behold an increased number of military writings. The incessant wars in which the nations of this northern portion of the globe have been engaged, the restless ambition of their rulers, and the height to which the arts and sciences connected with war-like operations have been carried, have contributed to form a mass of generals, of leaders, and of officers, unequalled in talents and capacity by any the most renowned heroes of antiquity. With such a class of men, so experienced and so constituted, it was surely reasonable to expect that military history would become fully developed; and that the commentaries and relations of some of the most distinguished captains would unfold to the present generation, and to posterity, the causes and consequences of the astonishing events which it had fallen to their lot to witness and to direct. Such, however, was the rapidity with which these events succeeded each other, and such the constant state of action in which the European armies were engaged, that no leader of distinguished abilities was able, from want of leisure, to give his notions publicity; it remained, therefore, necessary
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to wait till the almost hopeless return of continental peace should allow the reposing soldier to wield the pen, instead of the sword.

Of all the military historians whom this state of war has engendered, and to whom the subsequent peace has given the opportunity of displaying their talents for commentary or for composition, we may safely assert that no one has unfolded more general information, or has created a greater share of interest in his readers, than the author of the work now before us; and who, in this continuation of his memoirs, calls on us for the sixth time* to add our mite to the general tribute of eulogium, which he has so deservedly obtained from the literary as well as the military portion of his cotemporaries.

True to the announcement which he made in the first volume, and conformably to the plan of the work, the Count now presents us with an Historical Essay on the campaign following the events described in the 5th and 6th volumes, and embracing an epoch which was one of the most important in the modern ages of Europe; viz. the year 1802. As this memorable era is fresh in the recollection of all, we shall refrain from entering into minute details in order to explain the author's text, and shall at once commence the task of submitting the merits and demerits of his publication to the tribunal of our readers; many of whom, we are certain, are prepared to regard it with an "auspicious eye."

The first part, or 7th volume, is divided into five chapters, and contains an appendix of state papers referring to the text, as well as nine copious notes, which tend to explain some parts of the body of the history. The opening section is devoted to an illustration of the political condition of Europe, on the accession of Alexander to the throne of Russia; the situation of England; the retirement of Mr. Pitt from the direction of affairs; the change of ministry; and a developement of the views of the different parties.

'In proportion,' says the Count, 'as we advance in the career which we have undertaken to perform, our task becomes more difficult. A traveller resting on an elevated point, favourable to observation, imagines that he can take in at a glance the exact configuration of the country: but, if he changes his station, and places himself on another summit, however close it may be, he discovers a new horizon; and the same objects re-appear under other forms, and with different relations to each other.'

* See M. R. Vols. xxx. N. S. p. 581.; xxxii. p. 307.; xxxiii. p. 310.; xxxvii. p. 495.; and lxxxviii. p. 485.

474 *Dumas's Summary of Mil. Events, Vols. VII & VIII.*

In like manner, the historian is frequently surprized by events which alter in a moment the political *coup d'œil*. Should he neglect to arrest his progress, and to remark these new causes, of which he must afterward develop the effects, or ought he to slacken his career, already so embarrassed by this multiplicity of incidents? Let us leave these questions to be resolved by those more fortunate and more able writers who shall tread in our steps in after times; to their eyes alone our actions will appear in their true light, and will become fit subjects for the page of history, while our writings will be treated by criticism that is exempt from passion or interest. For ourselves, who can offer only to our contemporaries a series of very imperfect essays, we shall continue them with the same liberty, and the same impartiality; and, in order that they may serve hereafter, if not to diffuse a sufficiently strong light through the labyrinth, at least to give a clue to it, we shall search by turns the causes of the contest in political occurrences, and the political effects in the events of the war.

‘ It shall be a principal object of our endeavours not to omit any general considerations, which may appear to possess a connection with the most important events: but it must always be a matter of regret when we refuse ourselves the satisfaction of citing all those feats of arms, and all those glorious actions, consigned so worthily to the admiration of posterity in other annals, the plan and extension of which render them able to admit these interesting details. We flatter ourselves, however, that, in reference to our original plan, we have accomplished the moiety of our engagements; and, if our readers consider the great number of cases, worthy of recollection, which offer themselves to notice in the periods that our historical labours attempt to describe, they will view with indulgence our efforts to contract the picture.’

We have given this quotation from the author's opening pages, because it describes his method of carrying on the work; which, we are in some measure sorry to see, deviates a little from the course pursued in the foregoing volumes. The reader will remember that, in noticing the campaign of 1801, we deprecated strongly the mixture of politics in writings professedly military; and we have now certainly a greater reason to wish that Count DUMAS had contented himself with causing his lucubrations to assume only the latter tone, since we find that almost the half of his 7th volume is occupied with political reasonings and deductions, together with very copious translations of speeches and discussions in the British houses of Parliament; which, though they may be useful in pointing out our national character and resources to the French public, would certainly have occupied a more appropriate place in the sheets of a purely political treatise.

As we differ so decidedly in our notions with the author respecting the form and arrangement of his composition, we shall

shall not fatigue our readers with an attempt to display or to combat his opinions respecting the cabinet-causes which he has taken so much pains to describe; it will therefore be unavailing to follow him through the greatest part of the 7th volume; as it is almost wholly devoted to details of what "my Lord this" and "Mr. so and so" said about the great question of carrying on or concluding the war, at the time when Great Britain was threatened with invasion from the Gallic shores. One thing, perhaps, may be urged in its favour; that, as this subject has not hitherto been so freely discussed by a French historian, it will not be found uninteresting to the generality of English readers, who may wish to be informed in what manner our political notions of that eventful period are viewed by our rivals. It is very strongly shewn, according to the general opinion on this side of the Channel, that the whole expensive flotilla and "Invincible Armada" of *Bonaparte*, designed to invade this country, did not amount to one-third of the extent ascribed to it by the effrontery of the French journals and public documents on the one hand, and by the credulity of the English populace on the other: in fact, it has become every day more and more apparent that the First Consul never seriously entertained the idea of such a project being feasible, but merely collected this force, as the French say, "*pour entrainer les négociations.*"

Chap. II. points out the efforts and intrigues of the First Consul to detach Portugal from its alliance with England; the declaration of war by Spain and France against Portugal; the vain-glorious conduct of the too celebrated *Manuel de Godoy*, Prince of the Peace; his campaign, and the separate peace concluded by him between the Prince Regent of Portugal and the King of Spain; the refusal of *Bonaparte* to accede to this treaty; the march of General *Le Clerc's* army into the Lusitanian territories; the forced pacification between France and Portugal; and the occupation of Madeira by the British. In this section, the author confines himself more to facts than political disquisitions, and concludes thus: 'The most remarkable political result of this short campaign, in other respects of little importance as to its military relations, was the entire subjugation of the Spanish monarchy to the influence of France, and to the fatal domination of the Prince of the Peace.'

In the third chapter we have a rather larger share of military matter: but it relates chiefly to naval affairs, and passes high eulogiums on the activity of Admiral *Ganteaume* in escaping the British squadron on its first voyage to Egypt. The

The naval actions of Algesiras and the Straits of Gibraltar are well described; and in detailing these events, we are pleased to see that the national pride of the author does not prevent him from giving to our Admiral, Sir J. Saumarez, and his companions, that praise which is so justly their due. In the combat of the Straits, the singular and horrible circumstance of two of the Spanish ships of *Moreno's* fleet engaging each other by mistake is ably detailed, and throws a clearer light on that unfortunate affair than we have hitherto seen. We translate a part of this account, as it appears to be highly interesting:

' About eleven at night, Sir J. Saumarez gave orders to the *Superb* of 74 guns to attack the vessels of the rear, when this ship, passing between the *Hermenegildo* and the *Real Carlos* of 112 guns each, poured its starboard and larboard broadsides into each of them, and, crossing their wake, bore up against the *Saint Antoine* of 74 guns, which had been already attacked by the *Cæsar*. The two Spanish vessels just mentioned, which in the darkness of the night had not perceived the change of position of the English ship, and believed only that they were answering its fire, mistook each other reciprocally for enemies; a furious combat immediately took place; after having cannonaded each other with the most deadly fury, they ran foul; the wind freshened, and became violent, the *Real Carlos* took fire, and was soon in a state of general conflagration; and the flames quickly spread to the *Hermenegildo*, which could not be separated from it. The adverse squadrons being mingled promiscuously, friends and enemies, witnessed the disaster, but, being ignorant who were the victims of it, sheered off from this vast and horrible combustion; and the two vessels blew up within twenty minutes of each other. The double explosion was heard at an immense distance, and produced in Cadiz the effect of an earthquake. Three hundred men only, out of the two thousand who composed the crews of these ships, escaped from death by throwing themselves into their boats; and, as a finishing stroke to their misfortunes, they reached the *Saint Antoine* at the very moment when she was lowering her flag to the *Superb* and the *Cæsar*, by which she had been entirely dismasted.'

Chap. IV. is devoted to explain the projects of *Bonaparte* in the threatened invasion of England; the means of defence of Britain; Admiral Nelson's attack on Boulogne; and the opening of the negotiations between the two governments. The fifth chapter continues the account of these negotiations, with their subsequent rupture and re-organization, down to the signature of the preliminaries at London on the first of October, 1801.—These two sections contain a vast fund of useful matter for the future historian, and the subjects are well treated: but they present scarcely any thing which would
please

please the military student. In fact, the belligerent parties were at that time more occupied with plans of mutual defence, and with speculations on the future, than in active operations.

The sentiments of Pitt, of Fox, and of Sheridan, on this extraordinary pacification, are given *à la Française* by the author in the 242d page of this volume; which concludes with informing the reader that the next part of the work is devoted to a sketch of the situation of France, and of her political relations, at this epoch of triumphs, of joy, and of hope; when she imagined that she beheld her destiny fixed on stable foundations. After this picture, the Count promises a recital of the 'expeditions with which the indefatigable activity of the First Consul employed these primary moments of repose, and filled the interval which elapsed between the signature of the preliminaries at London, and the ratification of the treaty of Amiens.'

Volume eight contains seven chapters, with many copies of state-documents: among them are seventeen letters from *Bonaparte* to *Toussaint l'Ouverture*, and to the Minister of War: all of which, with those at the end of the seventh volume, are very curious, and marked in the strongest manner by the characteristic traits of the exile of Saint Helena. This volume also contains five long explanatory notes.

Passing over the primary chapters of the eighth volume, which relate chiefly to the political views of *Bonaparte* at the period of the convention of Amiens, we hasten to that part of the book which, in our opinion, is worth all the rest, viz. the description of Napoleon's attempt to re-conquer the revolted islands of Saint Domingo and Guadaloupe. In the exertions made by the Ex-Emperor on the former of these islands, we see the importance which is attached to it by French policy; and, in the complete failure of all his schemes to reduce the black kingdom to his iron rule, after a display of his utmost military and political capacity, we behold the absurdity of a notion which some persons have ventured to broach concerning the probability that Hayti may again become a colony of France. It appears somewhat surprizing, considering the extent of our trade with Saint Domingo, that we still remain very deficient in our information regarding that singular state. Many contemporary publications, indeed, have professed to give explicit accounts of its statistics, laws, climate, population, government, &c.: but all of them, without even excepting a recent work which is solely devoted to a description of the island, merely repeat with very trifling additions that which we before knew from the defective

tive performance of Walton respecting the Spanish Colonies, and from other ill informed writers. Even in the last supplement to the Edinburgh Encyclopædia Britannica, recently published, we meet with very little new matter on this subject; and we are much disposed to question the accuracy of that part of the article *Saint Domingo*, which makes the present boundaries of Hayti, with the Spanish part of the island, the same as those which formerly distinguished the French from the Spanish division of Hispaniola. We doubt very much whether the Spaniards hold more than a small part of the eastern side, or the portion immediately surrounding the city of Saint Domingo: for we well remember that their tenure was so frail that the French easily ejected them, and they were subsequently again driven out by the Haytians. So little hopes, indeed, had they at one time of being able to re-possession themselves of their colony, that the body of Columbus was disinterred, with the brass-coffin in which it was inclosed, and was conveyed to the Havannah.

In thus digressing from the main object of our labours, we have been actuated by a desire to make this geographical deficiency better known; and to give an opportunity for such works as the one just mentioned, and in short any performances of acknowledged merit, to amend, if within their power, the paucity of recent information concerning an island so famous in the history of the world, as having been chosen by the greatest of navigators for the site of the splendid edifice of European colonization in the western hemisphere.

The historical summary of the troubles which convulsed Saint Domingo, from 1789 to 1802, and its situation at the epoch of the signature of preliminaries of peace at London, are admirably described at length in the second chapter of the second part, or eighth of the History of the Campaign of 1802: but, as it would take us beyond our limits to make copious extracts, and without so doing we should break the connection of the narrative, we shall merely advise our readers to peruse this section, and the long statistical note attached to it in the Appendix, with attention; since in both the text and its commentary they will find more information concerning the causes of the Revolution, and the actual state of Hayti, than they can derive from any of the publications on the same subject which have lately appeared in this country.

France never sent to the western world so large an armed force as that which the First Consul directed against the insurgent colonies. The total amount of the first army, under the command of General *Le Clerc*, (brother-in-law of *Bonaparte*,) was 21,000 men; and the naval equipment consisted

sisted of thirty-five ships of the line, including one of 120 guns, two of eighty, thirty-two of 74 guns, twenty-one frigates, and many other vessels. This armament was divided into squadrons, and sailed under different commanders from the various ports of France, Holland, and Spain; the best officers both in the naval and the land service were selected; the troops were picked men; and, in the eyes of Europe, it appeared next to impossible that the revolted colonists could hold out: particularly as the universal pacification, which had taken place on the Old Continent, left the uncontrolled management of the victorious French armies at the disposal of the First Consul. The result proved widely different, and shewed to the world the impracticability of a people retaining possession of a distant colony, in which the seeds of independence had firmly implanted themselves in the breasts of its citizens; particularly when that people held very low rank on the disputed empire of the ocean.

Every thinking mind in this country has long been thoroughly convinced that, did we not possess a preponderant marine, we should long since have been deprived by the imported negroes of our valuable acquisitions in the Caribbean sea. It is a subject of singular interest to consider, that the consequences of the inhuman traffic in man's flesh, which has cost so much blood, such a mass of treasure, and created such scenes of abhorred villany, have tended only, and still tend, to erect an African empire in the New World; and that the Mulattoes and Castes, whom in our folly we have scornfully treated as an hybridous race, will one day assert their equality, and, joining the blacks, eject not only the European name but almost its very remembrance from the tropical regions of America. Let the descendants of our fathers in the southern territories of the United States bear this notion constantly in their minds! It is not yet too late for them to avert the dreadful catastrophe, which we may almost prophecy will inevitably befall them, unless they quickly adopt measures more congenial with the interests of human nature. Spain, in the present struggle with her Trans-atlantic colonies, has nothing to dread from the black population, and why? Because the slaves in that portion of the world are few in number, are treated mildly, and, with the earnings of their labour, if industrious, can always free themselves; a very small sum being sufficient, by the law, for that purpose. It may be asked, why then does Spain import, at this moment, such hordes of negroes into the Havannah? We fear that the reply will be almost as easy as the answer to the former question. These wretched slaves soon find their way to New Orleans, and the

southern states of the union; few, if any, being intended for Mexico or Peru, where none but the Indians, or aborigines, are capable of working in the mines.

Chap. IX. gives a very copious detail of the descent on Hispaniola, the situation of *Toussaint*, the fruitless negotiations between that leader and *Le Clerc*, the opening of the campaign, and finally the submission of *Toussaint*, after he had been deserted by his companions. Some warlike operations are here described, such as the attack on the *Crête à Pierrot*, which will afford much gratification to the military reader.

In the next section, Count *Dumas* ably points out the reasons for the subsequent failure of this attempt to reduce the island. The French troops, constantly harassed by parties of negroes who occupied the woods and fastnesses of the interior, were unaccustomed to a war in which the faces of their enemy were never shewn; hundreds of the bravest men fell while the columns were in full march, and imagining themselves perfectly secure: from behind rocks, from trees, and from almost inaccessible positions, the blacks poured a destructive fire on their opponents; and no sooner was one of these positions taken by the Gallic troops, after incredible labour, than they found it deserted by the Africans, who immediately occupied others, from which they continued their murderous fire. At length, when the steady valour of the Europeans had overcome every obstacle, and a seeming pacification was obtained, the yellow fever, with more deadly ravages than the deaths caused by the negro-riflemen, made its appearance; the soldiers, worn out with fatigue, sank under its baneful power; and, to crown their fate, the black population rose *en masse*, and attacked the Cape, just at the period when General *Le Clerc* fell an early victim to the plague of the West.

The eleventh section commences with an account of the situation of the colony of Guadaloupe, when the expedition for the Antilles sailed from the French ports. General *Richepanse*, a brave officer, who under *Moreau* had greatly distinguished himself, and was the principal cause of the victory of *Hohenlinden*, was chosen by the First Consul, in conjunction with Admiral *Bouvet*, to reduce Guadaloupe to its antient dependence on the mother-country. We cannot follow these chiefs through all the operations of the sieges of Fort La Victoire, the attack and taking of Basse Terre, and Fort Saint Charles: but they are severally sketched by a masterly pen; and they ended by the entire subjugation of the island, though with the same result as in St. Domingo; that is to say, as far as the troops were concerned; numbers of whom, together with

with *Richepanse* himself, were consigned to their graves by the yellow scourge.— From this chapter, however, we must quote one fact; which will serve to shew that, although Guadeloupe fell without much trouble into the hands of its former masters, on account of its small extent of surface, and from its being liable to complete investment, yet the determined conduct of the Blacks evinced a spirit which may once again burst forth to the detriment of France. ‘The negroes,’ says Count D., ‘obliged to abandon their last intrenchments*, threw themselves precipitately into the house of *Anglemont*, placed their ammunition under them, fired it, and blew themselves up, to the number of three hundred, among whom was their chief *Delgresse*.’

Chap. XII. and last of these two volumes is occupied by descriptions of the career of General *Rochambeau*, who succeeded to the government of St. Domingo on the death of *Le Clerc*. This officer appears to have exerted himself to the utmost in the defence of the island: but, being attacked by the inhabitants from within, and the ports being closely blockaded by the English cruisers from without, he was at length obliged to throw himself on the mercy of the British, to whose vessels his forces were transferred. Then commenced those horrible scenes of bloodshed which have been so often described; the negroes massacring the defenceless colonists, who were unavoidably left behind, without remorse. The text closes with an account of the stratagem by which General *de Noailles* and a handful of men escaped to the Havannah. ‘Having in his voyage encountered an English corvette, he boldly kept on his course, hid his crew, and displayed British colours. The captain of the corvette hailed, and demanded whence he came? “From Jamaica,” replied he in English. The captain, not doubting that it was an English vessel, said that he had orders to cruise in those seas for a ship in which General *de Noailles* had escaped; and *De Noailles* rejoined, without hesitation, that he had also the same commission.’ He even resolved to attempt, in the night, to capture the English corvette by boarding; and, after a desperate conflict, in which he was covered with wounds, he placed the tri-coloured flag at her mast-head, and carried his prize into the Havannah, but died some days afterward.

One part of this story, however, we are much inclined to doubt; viz. that an English naval officer would allow any strange vessel, especially if larger than his own, to remain so

* To which they had retreated from post to post with great judgment, and fighting at every step.

long in company without exchanging signals, or sending an officer on board. We are not disposed to depreciate the veracity of Count DUMAS: but he has in all probability borrowed this story from some contemporary author, who may have mistaken a merchant-vessel, or small privateer, for a British man of war.

The atlas accompanying this new portion of the historian's labours is, as usual, well executed. It contains a large chart of Portugal; two plans of the naval combats of Algesiras and Boulogne; a plan of the environs of the position of La Crête à Pierrot in Hayti; one of the city and anchorage of the cape in that island; two of the best maps that we have ever seen of the islands of St. Domingo and Guadaloupe, on a large scale; and an interesting sketch of that portion of the former island which did belong to France.—Before we take our leave, for the present, of this pleasing author, we shall once more express our wishes that, in the continuation of his essays, he would direct his attention more to military narrative than to political discussion, in the latter of which scientific endeavours he is rather deficient. As we observe several good specimens of English intermixed with the French text, we suppose that the Count is well acquainted with the language in which this critique is written, and it may possibly meet his eye; we are therefore the more desirous of repeating our opinion on this point.

ART. IV. *Histoire des Revolutions de Norwège, &c.; i. e.* A History of the Revolutions of Norway, followed by a View of the actual State of that Country, and of its Relations with Sweden. by J. P. G. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 1l.

ART. V. *Geschichte Norwegens, &c.*—The History of Norway, from the earliest Times, by G. L. Baden, LL.D., and from the Union of Calmar, by Baron HOLBERG. Translated from the Danish, and continued to the present Time, by A. ANDERSEN FELDBORG, Author of a Tour in Zealand, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Bumpus, London.

Now that Scandinavia is once more consolidated under the sway of a liberal, mild, and patriotic monarch, the time is come for writing the history of its separate provinces, which are henceforth to obey a single sceptre. The study of their respective histories will prepare the people of Norway and Sweden for amalgamation; as they have both gone through similar periods of the social progress in a like manner. During the Gothic heathenism, a lawless liberty prevailed among

among both, and every chieftain was a pirate, whose wife and wealth were alike torn by force from the dwelling of a weaker man. With Christianity some order was introduced, and piracy softened into commerce: but a servile superstition and the tyranny of a feudal aristocracy accompanied the catholic establishment. At length, the Reformation overspread Scandinavia, rekindled under *Gustavus Vasa* a spirit of rational freedom, and taught an austere morality adapted to the climate and penury of the north. From that time, the government of Sweden has more nearly resembled our own than has that of any other continental state: but, whereas in England the clergy have usually been disposed to assist the crown to rule independently of parliament, in Sweden the clergy have constantly assisted parliament to overawe the crown. Hence the frequent paralytic debility of the royal power in Sweden; which has led in our own times to three interruptions of sovereignty, the one by voluntary abdication, the second by assassination, and the third by deposition. On the modern history of Sweden, in our account of Browne's Northern Courts, (Number for May last,) we have lately spoken: that of Norway is now more especially and more immediately before us.

The author of the two volumes, M. J. P. G. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE, is a Frenchman of letters, and was attached, we understand, to *Bernadotte* before his advancement. He has since received many marks of favour from that ruler, and has justified these distinctions by various literary works of merit; such as the *Picture of the Baltic*, and the *History of Christina*, recently examined in our pages. (See vol. lxix. p. 471., and lxxix. p. 479.) Here he undertakes to describe the *Revolutions of Norway*; and he is certainly far better qualified for the task by a study of the native writers than *Vertot*, who had once a name in literature, was for writing the *Revolutions of Sweden*. Mr. A. A. FELDBORG, the translator and continuator of the History of Norway by *Baden* and *Holberg*, is perhaps more independently circumstanced, and is also advantageously known by a Tour in Zealand. We shall occasionally compare and contrast the two writers.

The French epitome is divided into eight parts, of which four are contained in each volume. The first comments on the traditional and mythological history of the Scandinavians, and notices the foundation of the Norwegian monarchy by Harold Haarfager, or the fair-haired. Various expeditions of the Norse-men to Ireland, Scotland, France, the Ferro islands, and Iceland, are narrated, and the chain of events is brought down to the year 933. In Mr. FELDBORG's history,

the internal condition of the country during this period is better illustrated: but the various enterprizes which made the Norse-men known, even in the Mediterranean, are more fully given in the French abridgment. FELDBORG has a native, and CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE an European point of view.

The second part relates the reigns of Erik Bloody-axe, Hagen Adelsteen, Harold Graafeld, Hagen Jarl, Oluf Trygvessen the establisher of the Romish church in Norway, and of Earl Erik, who followed King Canute into England, and died in this country. With the reign of Oluf the Pious, who completed the religious revolution begun by his name-sake, and who died in 1030, the chapter concludes. In this segment, the international history of Norway and Sweden is more attentively given by M. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE: he resides at Stockholm, and is intent on inserting all that interests that metropolitan public. Mr. FELDBORG, on the contrary, introduces very extensive archæological dissertations on the state of law, religion, and manners in Norway. On the Gothic mythology, curious speculations occur; and it is maintained that Thor was a god of the Fins, and worshipped in the North long before Odin, who was probably one of those Gothic kings that were chased from the Danube by Constantine, during the war described in the second book of Zosimus.

Part III. extends from 1030 to 1222, and includes the reigns of Svend Knudsen, of Magnus the Good, of Harold Hardraade, of Oluf Kyrre, of Magnus Barefoot, and of a multitude of competitors whom his partition of the sovereignty set up. All those particulars which connect the Norwegian princes with the royal families of England, Scotland, and France, or with the Crusades, are carefully noticed by the French historian. Mr. FELDBORG is rather bent on a complete series of the native sovereigns, however short their reigns; and, as in the case of Sverre, he takes peculiar pleasure in praising those rulers who have resisted the Romish church. He notices what may here be considered as a curious fact, that (p. 185.) Sigurd Jorsalafar appears to have been the first person who brought home to Norway, from his foreign travels, a complete copy of the Bible.

Part IV. extends from 1222 to 1319, and narrates the reigns of Hagen Hagensen, of Magnus Hagensen (misprinted *Magus* in the English translation), of Erik the priest-hater, and of Hagen Magnusen. The claim of Erik to the crown of Scotland is related in very similar terms by M. CATTEAU-CALLEVILLE (vol. i. p. 356.), and by Mr. FELDBORG (p. 210.); whence it may be inferred that they were in fact abridging the same native historian.

The

The commencement of the second volume, or fifth part of the French epitomist, coincides with the 215th page of the English volume, and ushers in the reign of Magnus Erik-sen, who was succeeded by Hagen the Sixth, and by Oluf. The history of Norway and Denmark here becomes much involved, and the more inclusive account of the French writer is obviously more convenient. Indeed, Mr. FELDBORG here lets slip his thread of native chronicle, abandons the account of the dependence of Norway, and applies to the Danish of Baron *Holberg* for a comparatively negligent and contemptuous notice of its existence as a province of Denmark.

In the sixth part we have the reign of Margaret of Wal-demar, and the narrative from the union of Calmar to the suppression of that treaty; viz. from 1397 to 1523. The seventh part relates the introduction of the Reformation into Norway, and gives a rapid sketch of the subsequent history of the country, down to the period of the French Revolution. — The eighth and concluding part explains the circum-stances growing out of the revolutionary war of Europe, which led to the separation of Norway from Denmark, and to its incorporation with the Swedish monarchy. We shall quote on this head the narrative of Mr. FELDBORG.

‘ The diet of Norway met at Christiania on the 8th of October, when Prince Christian sent in his resignation; and, on the 20th, the diet, by a majority of seventy-four to five, declared Norway to be an integral state of Sweden, and that the terms of union were compatible with the liberty and honour of the Norwegian people. — Nov. 8. the Crown Prince repaired to the hall of the diet, and in a speech remarkable for its mildness and candour, congratulated the two countries on that union which nature had always designed from its geographical position. On the following day Field-Marshal Count de Essen was invested with the dignity of Stadtholder of the kingdom of Norway, and a solemn *Te Deum* was performed in the cathedral church of Christiania. — On the 11th, the King of Sweden issued a proclamation confirming the assurances of the Crown Prince. On the 25th, the diet, headed by the Bishop of Aggerhuus, announced to his Royal Highness that its labours had terminated, and the next day he repaired to the assembly to dissolve the states. The speech he made on this memorable occasion was interpreted by Prince Oscar, his son, and briefly was as follows:

‘ “ Gentlemen, — You have witnessed the paternal intentions of the King, in the sanction of that constitutional law which guarantees the liberty of the Norwegian people. If, in passing rapidly from an absolute government to one founded on the laws, the wishes which you have expressed have been sometimes mixed with fears and disquietudes, they must be ascribed to the recollection of times and relations which no longer exist. You were animated

with the zeal of defending the rights of the people; the King was desirous of recognizing them, and he was induced so to do, as much by his particular sentiments as by the free constitution of Sweden.

“ Gentlemen, the duties of the extraordinary assembly of Sterthing being concluded, I announce to you, in the name of the King, that its session is terminated. — In returning to your peaceful habitations, each of you will always remember that union and order constitute the force of a state, and that its existence and prosperity require the submission of all individuals to the sacred commands of the law. The first duty of a prince is to cause this sovereign of kings and of people to be religiously respected. Resume the functions which you have quitted to answer the call of public confidence. The fear of God is the only one that freemen ought to acknowledge. May it be the companion of your labours, and the rule of your actions!”

‘ The diet afterwards broke up, and the Crown Prince returned to Sweden. The following is the substance of the alterations which were made in the Norwegian constitution : —

‘ Art. 1. Norway is an hereditary kingdom, free, independent, and indivisible, united with Sweden, under the authority of a king. The form of government is a moderate monarchy.

‘ 5. Jews continue excluded.

‘ 6. The inheritance of the crown is regulated by the laws of succession established in Sweden, on the 25th of September, 1810.

‘ 7. When there is no prince in the line of succession, the King may propose his successor at the same time to the states of Norway and Sweden. If the proposal is accepted, the representatives of the nations may nominate from among themselves a committee empowered to fix the choice, in case any of the persons proposed should not unite the majority of the votes of the representatives of the two nations.

‘ 9. The King arrives at years of majority in Norway at the same time as in Sweden.

‘ The coronation takes place at Christiania or at Trondheim.

‘ 12. The King every year passes some time in Norway, unless prevented by great obstacles.

‘ 13. The council of state, which the King nominates, is composed of a viceroy or governor-general, a minister of state, and at least seven members.

‘ 14. In the King’s absence the internal government is directed by the viceroy and five counsellors of state. The viceroy has two voices. During the King’s presence, the functions of the viceroy cease, and he is only first counsellor of state. None but the Crown Prince or his son can be viceroys. The powers attached to that office can only be exercised during a fixed period. The governor-general may be either Norwegian or Swede; but the counsellors of state must be Norwegians.

‘ 15. The King has constantly with him the Norwegian minister of state and two counsellors, who are to be changed every year. They are present at the resolves of the King respecting Norway.

' 25. The King has the supreme command of the forces by sea and land ; yet he cannot, without the consent of the diet, send troops to the service of foreign powers, or introduce foreign troops into the kingdom, except auxiliaries in case of invasion.

' 34. The Norwegian minister of state, and the two counsellors of state, have seats in the Swedish council of state, and may deliver their opinions on questions interesting to both kingdoms.

' 58. The diet meets every five years, in the beginning of February, in the capital, or any other city of the kingdom.

' 63. The King appoints the speakers of the two chambers.

' 69. A resolution adopted by three legal diets shall have the force of law, even should the king not assent thereto, provided it be not contrary to the letter or the spirit of the constitution.

' 70. The diet does not remain assembled more than three months, without permission of the King.

' 82. The King will promise to the representatives of the two nations a law, to the effect that Norwegians and Swedes may reciprocally obtain the rights of citizenship in Sweden and Norway.

' 99. All subjects are alike liable to military service until the age of twenty-five years.

' Thus, after a period of 184 years, the compacted union of Denmark and Norway was dissolved, and it will remain for those future involutions, which result from the political changes ever taking place, to snatch the new acquisition from Sweden, and restore it to its former connexion.'

The narration of the French epitomizer, which well deserves translation, is carried somewhat farther, and relates the death and funeral of Charles XIII., the subsequent recognition of Charles-John by the parliaments of Sweden and Norway, and his coronation by the Archbishop of Upsal. — Both these works have merit ; and they deserve the consultation not only of the British antiquary for the light which they throw on early events of our history, but of the British statesman for the additions which they make to recent record. It is to be wished that *Ruh's History of Sweden* were also rendered accessible in our language, as the northern courts are daily acquiring a fresh interest in the public eye.

ART. VI. *Mémoires Historiques et Géographiques, &c.; i. e.*

Historical and Geographical Memoirs concerning Armenia.

By M. J. SAINT-MARTIN. Large 8vo. pp. 450. Paris, 1818.

Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 1l. 1s.

WE took notice in our lxxixth volume, p. 463., of the excellent work of M. Champollion on Ægypt; and we have now presented to us a not less learned publication of the same kind on Armenia. It consists partly of geographical and partly of historical memoirs, and displays a rare acquaintance

quaintance with the language and literature of the country. It is dedicated to the Baron *Silvestre de Sacy*, who is himself honourably known for original and pervading inquiries into oriental erudition.

The geographical memoirs, which occur first, describe the greater Armenia, its mountains, rivers, lakes, and fifteen provinces; then the lesser Armenia. Many places, of which the antient names were doubtful, are here carefully referred to their synonyms in Strabo and Ptolemy: some errors in Whiston's translation of *Moses Khorensis* are detected; divers passages in historians and travellers are explained or rectified; and numerous manuscript-authorities deposited in the Parisian libraries are for the first time brought into light and use.

To the geographical matter succeeds an account of a history of the Orpelian Princes, originally written in Armenian by *Stephen Orpelian*, Archbishop of Siounia, at the close of the thirteenth century. Introductory dissertations announce that the second volume of this publication will contain the Armenian text complete. An epitome of the history of Armenia precedes; and then come chronological tables of the principal events, derived from the history of Armenia by *Michael Tchamtchean*, which was published at Venice in the years 1784, 1785, and 1786. Of this historic matter we will translate a page or two.

' *Hethoum* I. for a long time governed his kingdom with much wisdom and prudence. His sway extended over all Cilicia, over many cities in Syria, in little Armenia, in Cappadocia, and Isauria. When the Moguls, become masters of almost all Asia, were about to attack in 1244 the sultan of Iconium, the King of Armenia entered into an alliance with them, furnished troops for their wars in Syria, Mesopotamia, and Natolia, and proved himself a faithful ally. Accordingly, several cities of Syria, conquered by the Moguls, were added to the kingdom of Armenia by the princes of the race of Gengis Khan. In 1246, *Hethoum* sent his brother *Sempad* into Tartary, to congratulate *Gaiouk-khan* on his accession, and to renew with him the alliance which he had contracted with *Oktai* the predecessor. After the death of *Gaiouk*, and the elevation of *Mango* to the throne of *Gengis*, the King of Armenia resolved to go in person to the court of *Karakorum*, to connect himself more closely with the Tartars, and to obtain from them assistance against the Mamalukes of Ægypt, who threatened to invade his territories. He crossed Natolia, the greater Armenia, Georgia, and Mount Caucasus, in order to go and visit, on the Volga, *Batoo*, the chief of the Kaptchak-Moguls, who had already some relations with him, and who recommended him powerfully to the great khan. *Hethoum* formed a perpetual alliance with him and his successors, and obtained from him permission that all the Armenian churches in the Tartar empire

should

should be exempt from tribute. In crossing the greater Armenia, on his return at the end of the year 1255, *Hethoum* was treated with the utmost respect by all the Armenian princes on the borders of the Araxes, and was visited by them with the forms of homage usual to a common sovereign.'

According to *Schröder*, who published at Amsterdam in 1711 a *Thesaurus Linguae Armenicæ*, the Armenian alphabet was contrived in the fifth century by *Miesrob*, who superintended for the Armenian church a translation of the Scriptures into their language, which appeared about the year 410. Among his coadjutors, *Moses Khorensis* has named *Johannes Ecclensis* and *Josephus Palnensis*, and no doubt omits his own name out of modesty, for he too was a pupil of *Miesrob*. *Faustus Byzantinus* probably employed a Syriac alphabet. Except his work, until the existence of this version, the Armenians had no literature.

This publication is the first which has been exclusively consecrated to the description of Armenia: it is important to the traveller, to the missionary, and to the historian; and it fills up a perceptible chasm in geographical literature, and in the records of the middle age. It does honour to the recondite learning of the author, and to the liberal patronage of the French government, which granted by a ministerial letter the privilege of a gratuitous impression of the book at the royal press.

ART. VII. *Essai sur les Institutions Sociales, &c.; i. e.* An Essay on Social Institutions, in their Connection with new Ideas. By M. P. S. BALLANCHE. 8vo. pp. 420. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.

THIS is an interesting topic rather than an interesting book. Well aware that so much has been altered in France as to render farther changes a duty of consistency, the author "blinks the question" about these farther changes, and endeavours to preconize the order of the day. All this prudential circumspection may have favoured the immediate popular reception of his essay, but will certainly not contribute to its enduring impression. Fine writing he has at command: but, like all modern French writers, he squanders it with fatiguing perpetuity. No plain pages of prose intervene between his hills of metaphor, and his turrets of philosophic survey: every step is taken on stilts; every argument trundles on the velocipede of eloquence; the goal is kept in view, but not the difficulties of the road; and hence is often occasioned a loss of balance, and sometimes a doubt of arrival. Perhaps, however, display

play rather than drift was the real and solitary purpose of the composition; and to stalk well on the new machinery of the patent constitution, already superseded by an additional wheel, was enough for the ambition and the profit of the author.

The first chapter contains preliminary considerations; the second comments on the progressive march of the human mind; and the third shews that new institutions were become necessary to accommodate with appropriate convenience the altered dispositions of the times. As old baronial houses are ill adapted for the fashions of modern manners, so the feudal constitutions of Europe offered a superfluous shelter to useless rank and obsolete opinion, and resisted the advancement of that merit which education is daily evolving in classes hitherto despised. Chapter IV. notices the altered appreciation of writers formerly reputed classical in France. When their ideas are not found in unison with the new spirit of the times, a disgust arises during perusal, which renders their faults conspicuous, and deprives their most fortunate passages of the power of pleasing. *Bossuet*, the author observes, is one instance of these declining reputations. His epitome of Universal History, once so popular, is now considered as a tissue of chronological errors, hazarded, like those of *Rollin*, to support the dates erroneously assigned by the Romish church to the component parts of the sacred books; and his funeral orations, which, under the absolute monarchy of Louis XIV., were regarded as lifting the voice of independence, now seem redolent of the oil of episcopal flattery, and derogatory to the dignity of a manly eloquence. In short, the literature of a vaunted age is beginning to belong to the domain of archæology; and to be read with that allowance for the prejudices and bad taste of the times, with which we regard here the literature anterior to the Reformation. 'Eloquence,' says this author, (p. 114.) 'is not only in the orator who speaks; it is also in those who hear: if he does any thing else than excite what is already within them, he will only succeed in being deemed strange, and in passing for a man of imagination: there must be agreed points between the parties, before an efficacious sympathy can be awakened.'

The fifth and sixth chapters notice a number of antient ideas, which are become unintelligible; and the sixth chapter applies to religious ideas the same train of observation, but in a very timid manner. It would have been more consistent to maintain that the French reformers have erred in not re-constructing their church, and giving to their nation a worship

and a creed compatible with the present state of European instruction. It was the intention of the Ex-Emperor to have done this. *M. Villers*, who studied under *Eichhorn*, and Baron *Gussey*, were among the persons who had been consulted about the reformation of the church of France. The model was to have been fetched from Germany; and it was the anti-supernaturalist Christianity of Professor *Paulus*, for the introduction of which preparations were made, by organizing the Jewish and Protestant churches under a Presbyterian hierarchy, which it was projected to extend also over the Catholics. Indeed the Catholic church can undergo but one kind of reformation; either it must, as at present, persist in the establishment of the exoteric or evangelical Christianity, or it must, as *Bonaparte* intended, establish the esoteric Christianity of the apocryphal or secret books, and thus evulgate it to the entire reading world.

The seventh chapter is somewhat mystical, and attempts a strange division of minds into two classes; the one of which is said internally to translate its thoughts into words, and the other its words into thoughts. This abstruse topic is continued in the eighth chapter. The ninth and tenth are double, having each two parts; they inquire concerning the natural state of man, and maintain it to be the civilized state; and also concerning the origin of language, maintaining it to be revealed. The eleventh and concluding chapter has three parts, which talk very mystically about the emancipation of thought. We suspect the author to have been reading the works of the elder *Schlegel*, and to have caught a little of that moonlight mistiness, with which he silvers over and conceals the topics which it is in Austria inconvenient to agitate.

This work is so local in all its bearings, and contains so little of that higher thinking which is applicable any where, that we see no reason to recommend the translation of it into our own language.

ART. VIII. *Biographie Universelle, &c.; i. e. Universal Biography*, Antient and Modern. Vols. XI. to XV. 8vo. Paris.

OUR notices of this work (see Vol. lxxxvi. p. 498.) have already extended to the completion of the tenth volume; we have now received a continuation including the twentieth, and remain well satisfied with the abundant collection of new and hitherto unrecorded lives, which distinguish this dictionary.

From

From the eleventh volume, we take the brief life of a German professor.

‘*Dieze* (*John Andrew*) was born at Leipzig in 1729, became librarian at Maynz, and professor at Göttingen, where he died 14th September, 1785. He composed for the German Universal History the section concerning Spain and Portugal. He also translated into German the History of Spanish Poetry by L. J. Velasquez, the Travels through Spain of Pedro Antonio de la Puente, and the Notices concerning South America of Antonio de Ulloa.’

Many oriental lives are here first catalogued. In that of *Camille Desmoulins*, various secret springs of revolutionary measures are courageously exposed. To *Deyverdun*, the friend of Gibbon, an article is consecrated; and *Didot*, the printer, has a merited niche. The life of *Dolet* is written with distinguished criticism; and it is here proved that he was an unitarian martyr of the school of Servetus, and not an atheist, as Calvin pretends. Many painters and actors are enumerated, who have escaped the record of former biographical dictionaries.

In the twelfth volume, may be distinguished the life of *Dupleix*, as remarkably well written; and that of *Eckhel* the numismatist, in which the bibliographical notices of his successive publications are valuably precise. We will translate the life of *Bonaparte*’s favourite *Duroc*.

‘*Duroc* (*Duke of Frioul*) was born at Pont-à-mousson in 1772, and placed by his father, who was a notary, at the military school there. He passed on to Châlons, where he studied for the artillery, and, after having been made a lieutenant in 1792, emigrated, and spent some months in Germany. He contrived to get out of this scrape, and became aide-de-camp to General *Lespinasse*, with whom he made the first campaigns of the Revolution. By means of his old school-fellow *Marmont*, he was nominated an aide-de-camp to *Bonaparte* in 1796, accompanied him into Italy, distinguished himself at the passage of the *Isonzo* in 1797, and went with him to *Ægypt*. At the siege of Saint John D’Acre he was wounded by a bomb. He was one of those few friends whom *Bonaparte* brought back in his flight; and, as soon as this General had seized on supreme power by the revolution of the 18th of *Brumaire*, he confided to *Duroc* the most important missions: sending him successively to Berlin, Stockholm, Vienna, and Petersburg, in circumstances the most delicate. This favourite always fulfilled such missions to his master’s satisfaction; and, accordingly, the confidence reposed in him was entire. *Bonaparte* chose to have him constantly about his person, and, during the whole period of his power, both at Paris and on his journeys, to *Duroc* were intrusted those numerous cares which were supposed to be necessary for the safety of his Imperial patron.

patron. Of a cold character, discreet and reserved, nobody was more proper for such offices. Without energy, he could be only a passive instrument: but, as he was not the author, neither was he the opponent, of strong measures; naturally insensible, he could execute them according to order, and has neither prevented nor retarded a single crime. This was the way to preserve the Imperial favour; and, during fifteen years, *Duroc* was uniformly the confidant of the greatest projects and of the most petty intrigues; he was often even the complaisant minister of the most secret pleasures of his master. His military career was not remarkable. In 1805, he replaced for a moment General *Oudinot*, who had been wounded: but this appointment gave offence to officers who had more real claims. *Duroc*, indeed, was fitter to serve in the interior of a palace than on the field of battle; though he had the honour to die there, at Wurtschen, 22d May, 1813, being mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, at some distance from the fray. In the bulletin of this battle, a dying speech is ascribed to him, which cannot well have been uttered. His body was embalmed, brought to Paris, and deposited at the Invalides. *M. Villemain* had orders to prepare a funeral oration, which *Bonaparte* proposed to attend, but the circumstances of the war postponed this celebration, and no doubt for ever.

In the thirteenth volume, the life of our Queen Elizabeth is excessively long for a work of this nature: but it contains original points of view. The life of the Duke *D'Enghien* is singularly interesting, full of particulars hitherto unpublished, and worthy of separate translation in the magazines: but it is too long for our limits. The life of the *Chevalier d'Eon* is truly curious. It was almost impossible to agitate the strange question of his sex without something of indelicacy: but satisfactory proofs are produced that he was not a female, which was once believed. The life of *Evangelisti*, an Italian poet, who translated into Latin Gray's *Elegy*, ought not to escape the biographical repositories of our own country.

In the fourteenth volume, the life of *Sibrand Feitama* was new to us. He was born at Amsterdam in 1694, destined by his parents for the church, but deterred by private opinions from embracing the holy profession. He began by writing for the stage a tragedy intitled *Fabritius*, and an allegorical interlude called *The Triumph of Poetry and Painting*; and he translated for the Dutch theatre the *Romulus* of *Lamotte*, the *Darius* of *Corneille*, the *Brutus* and *Alzire* of *Voltaire*, and several other French pieces. He also translated into Dutch verse the *Telemachus* of *Fénelon*, and the *Henriade* of *Voltaire*; the last with remarkable felicity;—and he is supposed to have left among his papers the *Theseus*, the *Themistocles* and the *Merope*, which his nephew offered to the Dutch stage. He died in 1758, aged 63.

The life of *Faydit* deserves attention in this country; and indeed many anecdotes connected with the history of our kings and noble families may be derived from a study of the Provençal poets, and of the archæologists who have illustrated them. Of Richard Lion-heart, and of Simon de Montfort, we do not possess English biographies worthy of their influence in our history.

In cutting open the fifteenth volume, we were agreeably detained by the life of *Florian*, which, however, is too long for us to translate; and instructed by that of *Fontana*, which *Cuvier* has furnished. We shall defer to another opportunity the examination of the subsequent volumes.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *Monument à la Gloire Nationale, &c.; i. e. A Monument to the National Glory, or a general Collection of the Proclamations, Reports, Letters, and Bulletins of the French Armies, from the Commencement of the War of the Revolution in 1792 to 1815. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.*

THESE two volumes contain a republication, rather than a reprint, of a history which was drawn up in democratic times, and by a democrat, of the Jacobin war of the French in the year 1792. Probably, the work was suppressed by the police at some period when this sort of opinions grew unfashionable; and use is now made of the recently acquired liberty of the press to issue it again, with a new preface of 108 pages. This introduction indicates a disposition to revive in the military classes the early spirit of the French revolution; and to direct the national attention once more to the conquest of southern Europe, on the principle of fraternization, or of bestowing on the conquered provinces a participation in the representative system of France. We shall make an extract from it as a sample:

‘ When the information scattered in any country has rendered its institutions disgusting, a reform of the laws and government is become necessary; and a revolution is inevitable. In vain, ignorance may try to struggle against it; the attempt to controul only irritates its violence, and its pressed springs but rebound with the greater elasticity. Happy, no doubt, are those nations which are governed by men whose principles and conduct are always in unison with the public illumination: but much happier are those conductors of nations, who, instead of thwarting opinion, and trying to keep their century backward, favour its progress, and station themselves, if I may so express it, in the van of revolution. This
glory

glory is their only refuge. If they do not guide the car, they must be crushed under the wheel. Great and terrible reminiscences might serve us for examples. The enemies of France may, as long as they please, blame the excesses of the French revolution, but they alone have been the causes of the mischief. Their obstinacy and their cupidity have done all the evil. They had only to follow the nation, if they wished to have no occasion to complain of it. Enlightened about her rights, and restored to herself, France has now obtained a liberal constitution, which for ever abolishes arbitrary power, founds equality between her citizens, and puts the property of each under the safeguard of the law. This formed the purpose and the tendency of the whole revolution; it could stop but there. France was to be happy, flourishing, united, and tranquil within, only on her arrival at this goal. If no obstacle can prevent the birth of revolutions, neither can any barrier arrest them in their course. When the time of thaw is come, the floods must descend, bear down the feeble mounds, and overspread the lower margins.'

After this exordium, the preface proceeds to narrate the origin of the anti-Jacobin war, and to throw the blame rather on the concert of sovereigns than on the inflammatory language of the orators in the French National Assembly. A very complete collection follows of the decrees, proclamations, reports, letters, bulletins, and other public papers connected with the history of the war. We shall not give a re-translation of what the news-papers were daily translating twenty-seven years ago: but we would exhort those persons, who are intrusted with the management of foreign affairs, to renew a perusal of these incendiary documents. Then let them ask themselves this question: Has any thing been done to prevent a repetition of the same effects from a repetition of the same process? France is, apparently, meditating a second performance of the old tragedy. Spain and Italy are groaning beneath unpopular governors, and would probably welcome her armies as deliverers. In short, before the lapse of thirty years from the taking of the Bastille is much more than completed, the ensuing generation will probably be called to decide anew the same cases of interference and forbearance, which appeared so important in the days of their fathers. May a calmer temper and a more benevolent wisdom preside over every deliberation; and, above all, may no time be lost in giving to the people, every where, a country of their own to defend!

This work is intended to consist of a long series of volumes; not less than twenty, we presume, since these two volumes scarcely suffice for the single year 1792. It is, probably, not so much the purpose of the editors to dilate on the inglorious
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portions of the French campaigns, as to bring into circulation once more the still dangerous principles of this first and most agitative period; — and it must be somewhat suspected by those who know in what manner French publication is practically conducted, that the *high police*, which is the real brain of France, the true organ both of thought and motion, does not see with displeasure the attention of Europe drawn again to the rights of man and the institutions of democracy. Without exactly inveighing against this book as the manifesto of a new war, it certainly behoves government-critics to point out what is pernicious in the doctrines and treacherous in the professions of the French Generals.

ART. X. *Histoire et Mémoires de l'Institut Royal de France, &c.; i. e. History and Memoirs of the Royal Institute of France, Class of History and Antient Literature, Vol. IV. 4to. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.*

THE memoirs of this class of the French Institute seem to return at present with the same regularity as our Appendix: but, while their dense quarto allows them “ample room and verge enough” to treat a variety of subjects at very considerable length, the small page of our subsidiary Number reminds us of the necessity of confining our attention to a few articles only. We will in the first place give a general view of the contents of this volume, and then select a few papers for our observations.

It opens with four biographical sketches of the literary lives of deceased members of the class; MM. *Guillard*, *Anquetil*, *Bitaubé*, and *de Sainte-Croix*, by M. DACIER. — We believe that we have observed, on some former occasion, that literature and longevity go hand in hand in France, and the present case affords a corroboration of such a remark; the combined ages of the four writers in question amounting to not less than three hundred and four years. The two former chiefly occupied themselves in researches relating to detached portions of French history, a field which has afforded employment to many able labourers of that nation, and has not proved an ungrateful soil. M. *Bitaubé* may be considered as the rival of Mad. *Dacier* in translating Homer, on which work his fame principally rests. The present age is by no means partial to prose-translations of poets; and the question of their expediency, if we may use so cold a term, much agitated some years since, especially abroad, seems now to be fully decided, in practice at least,
if

if not in theory. Scarcely any person now reads a prose translation of a classical poet.

M. de Sainte Croix quitted a military for a literary career, in which latter he became a person of very considerable eminence. Antient history and mythology were the subjects on which he chiefly exerted his powers; and, though he has generally been deemed a digressive writer, he was beyond doubt an ingenious author, an inquisitive scholar, and an accurate chronologist.

The following is the bill of fare of the succeeding courses, under the title of MEMOIRS:

‘ 1. *Mémoire sur la Dynastie des Assassins, et sur l'étymologie de leur nom.* Par M. SILVESTRE DE SACY.

‘ 2. *Dissertation sur Apollodore, tyran de Cassandree, et sur l'époque à laquelle il a vécu.* Par M. CLAVIER.

‘ 3. *Mémoire sur la description du bouclier d'Achille par Homère.* Par M. QUATREMÈRE DE QUINCY.

‘ 4. *Mémoire sur la Course Armée et les Oplitodromes, contenant une nouvelle hypothèse propre à expliquer la statue vulgairement appelée le Gladiateur Combattant.* Par le même.

‘ 5. *Recherches sur les Habillemens des Anciens.* Par M. MONGEZ. — *Première Partie. Matières employées par les anciens pour leurs vêtemens, et travail de ces matières.* — *Seconde Partie. Habillemens que les anciens portoient sous la tunique extérieure.*

‘ 6. *Mémoire sur le char funéraire qui transporta de Babylone en Egypte le corps d'Alexandre; ou, Projet de restitution de ce monument d'après la description de Diodore de Sicile.* Par M. QUATREMÈRE DE QUINCY.

‘ 7. *Mémoire sur le bûcher d'Héphestion, décrit par Diodore de Sicile, et sur la manière de restituer ce monument dans un système tout-à-fait différent de celui de M. de Caylus.* Par le même.

‘ 8. *Mémoire sur les Observations Astronomiques envoyées à Aristote par Callisthène.* Par M. LARCHER.

‘ 9. *Recherches historiques et diplomatiques sur la véritable époque de l'association de Louis-le-Gros au trône, avec le titre de roi désigné.* Par M. BIAL.

‘ 10. *Mémoire sur la véritable époque d'une assemblée tenue à Chartres, relativement à la croisade de Louis-le-Jeune.* Par le même.

‘ 11. *Recherches sur l'objet d'un concile tenu à Chartres, l'an 1124.* Par le même.

‘ 12. *Mémoire sur quelques évènements de la fin du règne de Charles VI., ou l'on examine particulièrement quelles furent les poursuites auxquelles donna lieu contre Charles, Dauphin de France, et ensuite roi sous le nom de Charles VII., le meurtre du Duc de Bourgogne commis sur le pont de Montereau.* Par M. BOISSY-D'ANGLAS.

The second of these articles, from the pen of that able historian M. CLAVIER, attempts to assign an æra for the tyrant

tyrant Apollodorus; a personage who is rather known to us from having been introduced by antient authors

“ To point a moral, and adorn a tale,” *

than for any great influence on the annals of his own times. It is somewhat singular that the far-famed Phalaris, who accompanies Apollodorus in the office to which we have referred, should be also of very uncertain chronology, notwithstanding the labours of Bentley. Phalaris, we believe, is generally supposed to have met with his deserved fate, so aptly memorized as to be familiar to every school-boy,

(— “ *nec lex est justior ulla,
Quam necis artifices arte perire sua,*”)

about the middle of the sixth century before Christ; Apollodorus of Cassandrea, not till the middle of the third before the same epoch.

Cassandrea was the antient Potidæa, situated on a hill which unites the isthmus of Pallene to the continent. † It was destroyed by Philip of Macedon, B. C. 336, and re-established by Cassander, son of Antipater, some years after the death of Alexander the Great. Having had assigned to it some of the best lands of the country, it became a very flourishing state, and, according to Diodorus, was at one time the largest city in Macedonia. The date of the death of Apollodorus has been determined by M. CLAVIER in the following manner. Polyænus (Stratagem. lib. iv. c. 6.) says that the tyrant was deprived of his throne and life by Antigonus: the question, then, is to which Antigonus he alludes; if the elder Antigonus, the statement is at variance with that of Trogus Pompeius, or of Justin, who attribute his fall to Antigonus Gonatas, grandson of the preceding: but it has been observed that Polyænus confounds the actions of the Antigoni one with another, and there is consequently no difficulty in reconciling his statement with that of Trogus. The date of the death of Apollodorus may, then, be settled

* *At Phalaris at Apollodorus pœnas sustulit.*” Cic. de Nat. Deo. iii. 33.; in which passage these names are introduced for the sake of exemplification. So also, in Diodorus Siculus, the historian speaks of a king of Thrace of whom he adds, *Φάλαριν καὶ τὸν Κασσανδρέων τύραννον Ἀπολλόδωρον ὑπερέβαλεν ὄμωτητι.*

Davies, in his notes on this treatise of Cicero, refers for illustration of the passage cited to the following places also: “ *Interpretes ad Senecæ de Irâ lib. ii. cap. 5., præcipuè vero Nic. Heinsium in Ovid. Epist. ex Ponto, lib. ii. epist. 9. v. 45.*”

† Vide Thucydides, lib. i. c. 56. Pausanias, v. xxxiii.

on this and some other grounds, which we have not space to recapitulate, at 274 B. C.

M. CLAVIER's next and most prominent object is to prove the origin of this government; and, as the end of it has been already determined, the extent also of its duration, which appears to have been very short. Polyænus says that Apollodorus usurped the government of Cassandrea some time after Eurydice had restored liberty to that people, and he adds respecting him: — “τούτοις χρησάμενος συμμάχοις κατέλυσε [lege κατέλαβε] τὴν τυραννίδα καὶ τύραννος ἐγένετο φοινικώτατος καὶ ὠμότατος πάντων ὅσοι παρ’ Ἑλλήσιν ἢ παρὰ βαρβαροῖς ἐτυράννευσαν.” (Polyæn. Stratag. lib. vi. c. 7.) If then the time of this act of Eurydice can be ascertained, this small hiatus in antient history will have been satisfactorily supplied. There appear from M. CLAVIER to have been four females of this name, all of some historical importance after the death of Alexander: 1. A daughter of Philip, and wife of Aridæus. 2. A daughter of Antipater, wife of Ptolemy son of Lagus. 3. An Athenian so called, of the family of Miltiades, married first to Opheltas king of Cyrene, and subsequently to Demetrius son of Antigonus. 4. A daughter of Lysimachus, and wife to Antipater son of Cassander. As, with the exception of the first of these women, they were all in some way concerned in the affairs of Macedon, M. CLAVIER is consequently obliged to enter at some length into the annals of that country, in order to obtain his result, which he does satisfactorily, that the Eurydice in question, the second on the foregoing list, was the daughter of Antipater, and wife of Ptolemy the son of Ptolemy Lagus. She was also the mother of Ptolemy Ceraunus (sometimes, we believe, confounded with the son of Lagus), and it was soon after his death that the freedom was bestowed on Cassandrea. Now, as the death of Ceraunus took place in A. C. 280, and the death of Apollodorus in A. C. 274, and as some few circumstances intervened between the death of Ceraunus and the liberty bestowed on the city in question, occupying probably the space of a year, the tyranny of Apollodorus cannot have been extended to a greater space than three years. The result of this question, abstracted from the illustrations of cotemporary history which are afforded in the elucidation of it, must necessarily be of small interest to a numerous class of readers, but not to those who have made this period of history their study.

The third of these memoirs, by M. QUATREMÈRE DE QUINCY, revives a discussion which has nearly ceased to agitate the literary world, the merits of the Homeric description

description of the shield of Achilles. Julius Scaliger, we believe, led on the first crusade against this very extraordinary episode, for extraordinary it is in every sense; and partizans on either side rushed forwards at the sound of the trumpet, many of them themselves *αγαθοὶ βόη*. *La Motte*, in later days, in his "*Discours sur Homère*," was one of the most alert on the offensive side: but we do not recollect many very active champions on the defensive in modern times, before *M. Dacier*, whose apology is very strong and cogent. *M. Boivin* afterward descended to still closer quarters, defending the mechanical part of the performance with great ingenuity; proving that the allotted space could easily contain the subjects described, with the figures that composed them; and delineating the Homeric shield on paper, with which he undauntedly stood and maintained his ground against the critics. Pope supported the published opinions of *Dacier* and *Boivin*, adding to them a dissertation of his own on a point which had been omitted by former writers. He professed to consider the shield "as a complete idea of painting, and a sketch of what might be called an universal picture;" the light, he adds, in which it is chiefly to be admired. It must be confessed, however, that these words of Pope are not so very clear as we might wish; since, though we can easily understand what he means by "a sketch of an universal picture," the expression of "a complete idea of painting" is not so readily definable.

M. DE QUINCY first answers an objection of *La Motte* that the subjects introduced on the shield have no reference to the general design of the poem: but the reply is little more than a declaration of a difference in taste, by which he professes to see no reason whatever for any such analogy having been observed. The complaint of other critics, that the poet speaks of his embossed figures as actually engaged like living agents in their several occupations, is almost too frigid to deserve any reply. All who feel the slightest spark of poetic fire will supply an extemporaneous answer to such a charge. The most serious objection remains, that Homer has comprized, in a space which cannot be estimated at more than four feet diameter, such a variety of subjects, and such peopled scenes, as never could have been included in any such dimensions, unless indeed in such miniature as to make the description of them highly hyperbolic. We think with *M. DE Q.* that it is very hard on a poet to measure him with a carpenter's rule; and that taste and feeling may justify a description of that which common art cannot perform, more especially where the artificer was divine. He wishes therefore
that

that no apologies had ever been offered on this head: but, as that has been done, and in his opinion insufficiently, the poet has suffered the hard fate (he thinks) of getting an unlucky hit or two from his own defenders. He consequently enters the field in a cause which, he conceives, had better originally have been left to justify itself by the force of truth and good taste, but which now requires a champion, from the injudicious measures of its former friends.

The following is the summary of the objects which he undertakes.

1. To prove, by his dissertation and an engraved design which accompanies it, (intended to supersede that of *Boivin*,) that the description of the shield of Achilles, by Homer, if compared with similar descriptions in other poets, exceeds them all in happiness of invention, in judicious application to the occasion, and in the exactitude, to which it conforms, of adaptation to the superficial space allowed for the reality. 2. That the design of *Boivin*, hitherto approved by commentators, translators, and critics, in no way answers the objections which have been raised against the practicability of forming such a work of art; and that consequently his arrangement of the compartments is faulty:—that his description, moreover, supposes a state of art unknown in the time of Homer, and implies that other imitative means and materials were employed than could have been invented at that period. 3. By a comparison of a newly engraved design with that of the former critic, to prove that all the subjects might have been comprized within the allotted space, in the new design, although they could not have been in the former; and that Homer does not describe painting, or any sort of colouring properly so called, but only such varieties of metallic substance as might in sculpture afford an equivalent for it.

Whoever will take the trouble of turning to any tolerable edition of Pope's translation of the *Iliad* will find there an engraving of M. *Boivin*'s design, accompanied with the following explanation of it:

“The author supposes the buckler to have been perfectly round: he divides the convex surface into four concentric circles. The circle next the centre contains the globe of the earth and the sea in miniature: he gives this circle the dimension of three inches.—The second circle is allotted for the heavens and the stars: he allows the space of ten inches between this and the former circle.—The third will be eight inches distant from the second. The space between these two circles shall be divided into twelve compartments, each of which makes a picture of from ten to eleven inches deep.—The fourth circle makes the margin of the buckler;

and the interval between this and the former being of three inches, is sufficient to represent the waves and currents of the ocean." *

Our readers will perceive that these divisions will form collectively a diameter of four feet: the buckler might indeed have been imagined larger, but this limitation seems to be as fair as any that can be assigned.

For the sake of juxta-position, we will now describe the new design of M. QUATREMÈRE DE QUINCY, as we collect it from his dissertation.

In the first place, he diminishes the number of the compartments to ten, inclusive of the celestial bodies and the ocean, whereas M. *Boivin* allows twelve compartments for the composition-subjects only, exclusive of the globe of the earth, the celestial bodies, and the sea; which make an aggregate of fifteen. The ocean forms his outer circle, as it does with *Boivin*; and respecting this, indeed, Homer admits of no doubt. His second circle from the exterior contains six compartments only, viz. the tilling, the harvest, the vintage, the herds of oxen, the pastoral scene, and the dance. The next circle, receding from the exterior, has two compartments only, —the city in war, and the city in peace. The interior circle of all exhibits the celestial bodies, having the signs of the zodiac arranged equidistantly in a circle surrounding the sun and the planets. Some advantages are evident in this arrangement, but it is by no means without objections. According to the new design, the order of subjects beginning from the centre is more exact to the Homeric description, as the two scenes of a city under different circumstances succeed immediately to the celestial bodies: but to this first part of the arrangement it may be objected that the earth has no place distinct from that of the heavenly phænomena, and the words therefore 'Εν μὲν γαίαν ἔβουζε must be connected with those which succeed them, as only one part of a whole subject. To this we should have no objection from the words of Homer, which would easily bear that interpretation: but the difficulty lies in supposing that he should have considered our

* We are not aware whether the observation, that the words πάντοσε δαίδαλλον may imply that the buckler was ornamented with these subjects within as well as without, belongs to M. *Boivin* or to Pope, as the latter has not very accurately discriminated this fact. The shield of Minerva in the Parthenon affords an example of the kind, but we cannot bring ourselves to admit this intention here in the poet; at all events, he could never mean that the same subject should be divided on either side, thus entirely spoiling the continuity and effect of it.

earth as forming a part of a planetary system, a supposition which is indeed absurd. He was more likely to make our globe a principal in the composition, and the sun an accessory, than the reverse; and we should, therefore, so far agree with M. *Boivin* as to make the earth central. With regard to the general arrangement of the composition-subjects, much space is doubtless gained in the breadth of each compartment by M. DE QUINCY: but, as two circles are appointed to contain them instead of one, they must lose proportionably in depth. It is greatly to be wished that he had descended to give us his admeasurement by inches, as his predecessor has done, because the comparison then would have been much more satisfactorily instituted. As to the reduction of the number of composition-subjects from twelve to eight, which is effected by compressing the three relating to a town at war into one, and the three relating to a town at peace into one also, we decidedly agree with the present writer. M. *Boivin* conceived that he preserved the unity of each piece most effectually by this sub-division: but it seems to be wholly unnecessary, more especially as Homer has marked his own divisions pretty clearly by the insertion of the words 'Εν δ' ἑκάστῃ, κ. τ. λ. at the head of each description. Yet less of space is gained by excluding this sub-division than we may imagine; because, although the number of subjects is reduced, this reduced number must contain more figures in proportion, and require an extent accordingly. *

We here leave this part of the subject to the decision of our readers: a more curious topic remains, — the variety of colours described by Homer.

"There is reason to believe," says Pope, "that Homer did in this, as he has done in other arts, even in mechanics; that is, comprehend whatever was known of it in his time; if not (as is highly probable) extend his ideas yet farther, and give a more enlarged notion of it: accordingly, it is very observable that there is scarce a species or branch of this art which is not here to be found, whether history, battle-painting,

* Some space is undoubtedly gained in the new arrangement: for, by consolidating three pieces into one, it is not necessary to develop in each all the parts of the general action; since, as the author observes, they become dependencies on a whole. The imagination is consequently led by the eye, but has not much to supply which the former does not immediately convey to it. It may also be observed that painting with any reference to perspective, however rude, would occupy more space or depth than the '*signes abbreviatifs*,' as the French writer terms them, of the bas-relief antique.

landskip, architecture, fruits, flowers, animals," &c. — This sentence conveys a clearer interpretation of what Pope means by "a complete idea of painting," than his mere enunciation of those words in a previous passage. He then proceeds to offer reasons why painting may be supposed to have been more generally practised in the age of Homer than it is usually allowed; yet, after all, the species of painting which he conceives to be applied in the present instance seems scarcely to fall under any very strict definition of that art. The outline, he says, may be supposed to be engraved, and the rest enameled with metals of various colours. Homer speaks of a great variety of these colours, but how they were produced is the question. Pope conceives that not only this variety was created by the different shades which different metals may be made to assume, but that the metals were enabled to receive extraneous colours by the operation of fire, in which case the god would have had a great diversity at his command. In support of this method of burning in colours, he cites the description of the bricks which composed the walls of Babylon, by Diodorus; who states that they were painted with the figures of animals, &c. and afterward burned. — Thus much Pope, who generally follows *Boivin*: but it is not very clear how far the French critic intended to carry this idea of painting. According to M. DE Q. he went farther than we have represented Pope to do; or, if he did not, the engraver of his design did, and he himself denotes his compartments by the French word "*tableau*." We cannot but think that M. QUATREMÈRE's opinions, on this subject at least, are far more reasonable, and more consonant to the little knowledge that we possess of such remote antiquity, than those of any of his predecessors. To enter into a discussion of the different space required would demand a comparison of antient and modern bas-relief, into which our limits forbid us to advance; and we will, therefore, content ourselves with the mode employed in designating colours, for that some were intended to be designated is beyond all dispute.

Homer, observes M. DE QUINCY, doubtless meant that to each object should be given colours of that description which belonged to the objects themselves: but we are not obliged to suppose that he intended them really to have all the shades of nature, or of painting; any more than that his figures moved and spoke, which acts, in the language of poetry, he makes them perform.

Vulcan, says the poet,

Χαλκὸν δ' ἐν πυρὶ βάλλεν αἰεϊρέα, κασσίτερὸν ἰε,
Καὶ χρυσὸν τιμῆνια, καὶ ἄργυρον —

Here,

Here, then, are the materials with which the god worked. If the art of mixing metals was then known, we have at once a variety of colours, which would render it unnecessary to have recourse to those that were burnt in by fire, of which Pope speaks; and still the poet may have the license of amplifying the effect produced, by giving it more closely the colouring of nature than such art could bestow. In fact, however, he does not avail himself of this illusion to any great extent, but perpetually recalls the reader to the material itself: as, when speaking of the figures of Mars and Minerva, he says:

* Ἀμφω χρυσαῖω, χρύσεια δὲ ἱμάλια ἐσθην,
* * * * *

Χρυσεῖοι δὲ νομῆες, κ.τ. λ.

These varieties of colours, thus producible, belong no doubt to the different branches of metallurgy. The word "*toreutique*" is the expression of M. DE Q. "*Toreutice*" is a Greek word, used by Pliny to signify embossing, or engraving: but as these two arts are not of the same process, and it is not very clear how much he comprehends under the term, a more definite word would have been preferable. It is a curious remark of the same writer, that Homer in four instances only goes beyond those varieties which might be represented with a fair degree of fidelity by the materials allowed; and respecting one of these he himself observes that Vulcan had the art to render that black which was in effect gold, an art which he doubtless might have extended to the other subjects in which that colour was required.

Ἦδε μελαίνειτ' ὀπισθεν, ἀρρόμενῃ δὲ ἐφ'κει,
Χρυσεῖη περ ἔσσα·

are the words which Homer applies to the newly made furrow.

Virgil at least may be allowed to have understood Homer, and, from a comparison of the shield of Æneas with that of Achilles, little doubt will remain that he considered the colours as derivable from metallurgy only.

It is justly observed by this same learned writer, in his preface to the succeeding memoir, (*Sur la Course Armée, et les Oplitodromes, &c.*) that the explanation of the works of art, which have descended to us from antiquity, is so nearly allied to a knowledge of the customs of those times, and that these two studies have such close reciprocal connection, that little necessity exists for recommending researches which, at the same time, illustrate two laudable objects of pursuit. 'The slightest account of an antique figure,' says he, 'in develop-

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ing to us an unknown custom, causes us to understand some obscure passage in an antient author, and the shortest passage in an author may reciprocally afford an explanation of a work of art.'

Professor *Heyne* and others have coincided in observing with M. DE QUINCY that one of the greatest errors, incident to modern descriptions and explanations of antient statues, is that of considering every thing which has been discovered at Rome as indicative of Roman customs, and only to be resolved by them. The celebrated statue of Agasias, the fighting gladiator, the *Gladiateur Borghese*, is subject to this criticism. It has taken its name and its subject, according to modern opinion, from the above circumstances: whereas, according to the present writer, it is a production of Greece, and illustrative of a Greek subject. M. DE Q. observes that it is contrary to our general ideas of Roman habits to suppose that they ever raised statues to gladiators; that, if they did, it must have been in those days in which taste and art had alike degenerated; and that this figure is, on the contrary, clearly the production of the best ages of sculpture. We do not see that much is gained by this argument; because, though statues may never have been raised *in honour* of gladiators, it is not too much to suppose that such a subject may have been chosen simply for the opportunities of displaying the human form, in certain expressive attitudes which it afforded. We do not imagine that every statue of the heathen gods was carved for religious purposes, but sometimes as the embellishments of tasteful decoration: any other subject, too, we conceive, might have been chosen, not to do honour to the person or thing represented, but to delight the eye of the spectator by the copy of nature which it supplied, as well as the excellence of art. We agree, nevertheless, with those who expose the absurdity of conferring the name of Gladiator on all naked statues found in Italy which represent the act of fighting; and it seems probable that many, or most of them, may have been statues of warriors, and the subjects be representations of some heroic action, which latter are only discoverable, or rather only to be conjectured, from close attention to the composition. The nudity of such figures, even when engaged in combat, affords no argument against this latter character. Yet, in the statue in question, M. DE QUINCY, though generally coinciding in these remarks, observes a mixture of motive or principle of action, not to be explained by this former supposition, nor indeed by any interpretation resulting from one single and simple idea. Having decided that the figure is not that of a Roman gladiator, he is also convinced that

that it is not that of a warrior engaged in combat; although, excepting from some distinctive features which he has observed, he might not have been unwilling to have classified it in that manner. He consequently proposes a new hypothesis respecting this relic of antiquity, which might be extended to others similar in character, though clearly not by any common observer. He remarks, that most writers of Greek archaeology, in treating of gymnastic exercises at public games, have neglected to make particular mention of one well known at Pisa, Delphi, &c. that of the *ὀπλιτοδρόμοι*, the armed race.* Cultivated, he adds, as an apprenticeship to the profession of arms, it became also a representation of the art of war. In the former quality, it partook of the general character of the athletic games of Greece. — The next step is the proof that victors in this exercise were frequently honoured with statues, and that those statues were naked, with arms. The application of this remark to the figure under consideration is obtained by a learned and copious dissertation on this portion of the public games; conducted fully on that principle of reciprocal illustration between two kindred pursuits, of which he has spoken in his preface.

The author's first postulate is that a naked figure, with a buckler, lance, or sword, and in the attitude of combat, needs not necessarily represent a warrior abstractedly, or one actually engaged with an enemy: which he proves by a short dissertation on the *ἐνοπλιος ὄρχησις*, and a much more elaborate discourse on the *ὀπλιτοδρόμοι*. The Curetes and Corybantes of early mythology gave rise to this former gymnastic exhibition: which was performed by youths at the feast of Cybele, whose accoutrements seem closely allied to those of this statue, and in which the performers beat time on the shield with the lance:

— “ *non acuta*
Sic geminant Corybantes æra.”

Plato and Athenæus both speak of this exercise as a school of arms instituted to teach the positions and attitudes of fighting; and we know how frequently it formed a subject for bas-relief. Athenæus says that sculptors were constant spectators of the exhibition; and, though they attended, perhaps, only for their general improvement, still the circumstance affords a very fair ground for applying their object more closely: yet

* This is certainly true of Potter, who only mentions the name cursorily. *Barthélemy* omits it altogether: for which the circumstance that it was of later institution than the other contests in the games may partially account. — Vide Pausanias, Lacon. lib. iii. c. 14.

this is not necessary, because it is clear that statues were raised to the victors; and even in days somewhat more degenerate, when the candidates of the prize were rather regularly trained actors than noble and generous youths. M. DE QUINCY thinks that he perceives, in the statue of Agasias, a mixed and dramatic character, and certain contradictions not altogether applicable to a real warrior, which would make him prefer a solution that assigned the figure to a dramatic combatant.

Not satisfied with the last explanation, except in the light of one confirmation of his postulate, the author proceeds to the consideration of the armed course or race; which we may presume with him to have been instituted as a part of the public games in the sixty-fifth Olympiad, about A. C. 535, and consequently about a century, we imagine, before the death of Pindar, who celebrates a victor in this contest.* Pausanias gives a full account of this exercise, and, which is still more to the purpose, of a statue raised to a victor †, the accessories of which were a buckler, a helmet, and buskins or sandals. He adds, ταῦτα μὲν δὴ ἀνὰ χρόνον ὑποτελίσαντες καὶ ὑποῦντες Ἕλληνας τῶν ἀλλῶν ἀφῆρέθη τὸ δρόμον. Now it is well observed by M. DE Q. that, if by ταῦτα we understand all these accessories of the figure, nothing would be left to mark its designation: he proposes, therefore, and we assent to his criticism, to confine the application of it to the last two articles, the helmet and the sandals, for we see no difficulty in such an interpretation. It is somewhat singular, nevertheless, that the author should have left unnoticed the omission of the spear in this account, which bears so strongly on the question. In a passage of Thucydides, here cited ‡, it is expressly said that those who were engaged in the procession of the Panathenaic festival were armed with the shield and lance, without cuirass or helmet; from which circumstance, M. DE Q. draws the inference that the absence of the two latter discriminated those who went in procession from the character of warriors, which would have been inconsistent in the celebration of such a religious festival. Hence he sees a shade of distinction between the statue in question, and that of any person who was engaged in real combat.

* Vide Pindar. Pyth. Ode. ix. τελίσκονται Κυρηναῖοι ὑπὸ λισσοδρομῶν.

† Pausanias, lib. vi. c. 10.

‡ Lib. vi. c. 59., where the historian relates the murder of Hipparchus, by Harmodius and Aristogeiton, at the Panathenaic festival, and the conduct of Hippias immediately subsequent to that event.

Some interruption of the performance of this exercise at public games seems to have occurred: but, as it was certainly in use during the finest periods of the arts in Greece, such interruption would form no valid objection against this hypothesis. There were also varieties in the armour worn, arising as well from changes of fashion as from the different number of stadia over which the race extended; and it must be deemed sufficient, therefore, if the accoutrements described were those of most general application.

The succeeding point of confirmation, to which the author has recourse, is the proof that statues were erected to these victors; and he has produced abundant testimony of this fact from Pausanias: but of the attitudes, in which they were usually designed, little description is given that can establish any general rule. The original question, we think, has been fairly answered in the affirmative, viz. that a statue, circumstanced like that of the Borghese gladiator, may represent something different from a warrior, or a person actually engaged with an enemy. — The next object is to identify it with the candidate for the prize in the armed race. Many of the arguments in favour of this explanation of it are deducible from what has already been stated: those which succeed are rather in the province of *virtù* than of literature; and to the followers of the former we now relinquish the question for their decision, referring them to the 192d and subsequent pages of this volume.

We must confine our attention to one other of these memoirs only, and select the eighth in the table, by M. LARCHER, on the reputed transmission of certain astronomical observations to Aristotle from Callisthenes, at that time at Babylon. The subject is not altogether new: but, on the principle that "*multa renascentur quæ jam cecidere*," and the conviction that few if any questions relative to antiquity can boast such a recommendation, we do not hesitate to turn the attention of our readers to this paper. The origin and history of astronomy, in its earliest ages, are enveloped in a greater degree of obscurity than many other sciences: but it has laid claim to an antiquity as inconsistent with the Mosaic history of the world, as it would be incredible from a vast variety of other reasons, were not that history amply satisfactory for the argument. Howsoever the geologist may argue respecting the strata of the globe which we inhabit, and assume the existence of a previous planet from phenomena which he discovers in the one assigned to us, he does not in consequence question the Mosaic history of the creation of man, or the formation of the globe of which he investigates

the structure. The heathen philosophers and historians had no such light to guide them; and the absurdities, into which they fell in speaking of the subject before us, are the natural result of looking for lost needles in the dark. Presumption is the early produce of ignorance, without which the latter may not be culpable; and, in the present case, they sprang from it with a vigour which cannot but astonish men of "our degenerate days." In assigning arbitrary æras for the origin of this science, we might pass over the addition of a few hundreds of thousands of years to the age of our planet, without much astonishment: but, when the same writers do not condescend to make the history of the civilization of man generally precede, or even run parallel with, the cultivation of a single science, we are lost in some degree of wonder at the excessive boldness of ungrounded assertion.

The æra of Nabonassar, A. C. 747, seems to be the earliest to which the commencement of observations on the heavenly bodies can authentically be traced. How much sooner they may have been made must remain uncertain, for it is far from absurd to suppose that they may in some sort have exercised mankind at a period little more recent than that of the universal deluge. M.-LARCHER truly observes that no proof of this circumstance can exist: vague traditions, such as those of the Babylonians cited by Greek writers, may be found: but, even if these did not go back beyond the æra of the deluge, or of the creation, still they must remain unproved: because, he remarks, supposing that, in very early ages, these observations were preserved by tradition, and subsequently consigned to the baked brick of earth, we have then to learn when such conventional signs, as could represent them, were invented; and here again we are lost in uncertainty.

Among the improbable but less absurd opinions, are those of Simplicius the commentator on Aristotle, who lived about A. D. 460, and states that the Egyptians were masters of this science 1451 years before Christ, and the Babylonians still earlier.* Secondly, the story of Arrian, stating that Callisthenes found records of astronomical observations inscribed on burnt bricks at Babylon, which went back 1903 years before the death of Alexander the Great; and, as that event took place A. C. 324, they would consequently mount to 2227 years

* Simplicius cites Porphyry for his authority, whose statement this may be considered to be. The work of the latter, in which it occurs, is not extant, but only thus partially preserved in the writings of another.

before the Christian æra, and commence rather more than a century after the deluge: M. LARCHER says, 101 years subsequent to that event: but this computation would only give the sum of 3984 instead of 4000 or 4004 years from the creation to the birth of Christ.

These discoveries of Callisthenes, which are stated to have been transmitted by him to the learned Stagyræ, are the subject of this dissertation; the relations of Simplicius and others being discussed incidentally. Three prominent points are investigated: the first, in the interrogative form:—Did Callisthenes discover these remarkable relics, did he send them to Aristotle, and, if he did, what were they? The other two are dispatched by negative proofs. 1. The Greek astronomers, so far from knowing of any celestial observations previously to the age of Nabonassar, were not even acquainted with that æra. 2. Ptolemy, (who flourished about A.D. 130,) the first writer who makes mention of that æra, knew nothing of any observations anterior to it.

We will attempt with brevity to sum up the heads of M. LARCHER's arguments; which, if not absolutely conclusive, produce a result bearing a strong similitude to truth. The succeeding statement is to be considered generally as that of the French author.

Callisthenes is said to have found these records of astronomical observations in a public place at Babylon: strangers, therefore, as well as natives, must have visited them: but antiquity affords us no hint that any other person ever did see them. Aristotle died A. C. 322: but his disciples appear never to have heard of the existence of such documents, either from him living, or from others after his death: on the contrary, Porphyrius, who flourished about A.D. 264, is the first who speaks of them. We have a history of the library and works of Aristotle preserved in Strabo, which is curious if authentic. Some of the possessors of this valuable inheritance were themselves philosophers, on whom such a work as that of Callisthenes could not have been lost: but, if it ever existed, it *was* lost to them altogether. Sylla is said by Strabo to have brought this library to Rome about A. C. 89. The works were copied and dispersed, and some, it is said, were in a very mutilated condition: the transcribers also are stated to have performed their office badly: but there is no reason for supposing that the Babylonian manuscripts perished, more than any others: we cannot say that they absolutely did not, but we have no ground whatever for imagining that they did. As so very large a proportion of Aristotle's reputed works have descended

to us in comparison of those of some other authors, perhaps we may fairly say that the decayed state of these volumes, as declared by Strabo, without being untrue, may convey to us a stronger idea of their bad state than we ought comparatively to entertain. If, however, we credit Athenæus, which M. LARCHER is inclined to do, the whole statement of Strabo falls to the ground. He informs us that Ptolemy Philadelphus had bought all the books, and taken them to Alexandria, before any such accidents had occurred to them. Plutarch corroborates Strabo: but they constitute only one testimony, because the former evidently copied from the latter.

Other strong grounds might lead to decide that no such relics of Aristotle were previously lost. Andronicus Rhodius, A. C. 59, published the titles of all Aristotle's works, lost, and extant. Of those which are now extant, we may judge for ourselves; and the names of those which are lost have no reference to the science of astronomy. Diogenes Lærtius, indeed, in his catalogue, mentions the "*Astronomicum*:" but, as neither of them speaks of the known and extant work *Περὶ Ὀυρανῶν*, we must necessarily conclude that they designate it under another and a synonymous title. That this is not the present of Callisthenes is clear from the contents; and that it does not in any way comprize it is equally evident: the only suggestion which remains is that this communication may have formed a part of it, and have been lost: but the treatise, as it exists now, is to all appearance so whole and entire as to preclude our assent to such an hypothesis.

Callisthenes must have sent copies, because the materials on which these observations were said to have been preserved were not easily transportable. What, then, it may be asked, became of the originals? They doubtless remained at Babylon: but no writer has recorded that they were ever seen there. Berosus and Critodemus were at Babylon not long afterward, and must have seen them: but we have no reason for believing that they ever did, while the contrary is almost a certainty. Later travellers, Epigenes for instance, near the age of Pliny, did see and mention the records of science subsequent to Nabonassar, but make no mention of any that preceded them; which Epigenes undoubtedly would have been anxious to do, as mounting nearer to the head of the spring. If the Greeks had become acquainted with these observations, it is scarcely possible that some of their later writers would not have transmitted them to us. To Ptolemy they would have been of inestimable value, as enabling him

to shew the revolutions of those celestial bodies which, occurring only at very long intervals, require antiquity of recorded observations to be reduced to system. Still it may be urged that, though the story of Callisthenes be shewn to have been fabricated, and no records of an earlier date than Nabonassar have been discovered or known by authors subsequent to him, it is not proved that none such ever existed previously, and that the account given by Berosus is false; viz. that Nabonassar destroyed all such documents antecedent to his own reign, because he wished that Chaldean history might take its origin from the commencement of that new æra. The absurdity of such a design is not, we conceive, so glaring as a hasty review of the circumstance might lead us to suppose; for, although manuscript annals of science, respecting the materials used by Greeks and Romans, might have been so far multiplied as to render such an attempt difficult, the same objection would not hold good when these transactions were inscribed by a difficult and tedious process on architectural substances, and no dispersion of copies was practicable. Nevertheless, many reasons, independent of those which strike the mind immediately, may be urged for deeming it highly improbable that such an event took place.* As far as this story bears on the question under review, it contradicts Porphyrius, and Simplicius, who has transmitted his account to us. The former gives no authorities for his assertion: but, had it been in his power to produce any, he surely would not have omitted them while the contrary testimony of Berosus met him face to face. We cannot conclude this subject better than by quoting the words of the learned Dodwell on this same point, to whose opinions M. LARCHER subscribes:

“ Nempe inviderit humano generi, inviderit reipublicæ litterariæ, tam egregias vetustasque observationes Aristoteles; nullus repererit in Aristotelis bibliotheca Græcus, seu philosophus, seu astronomus; nullus etiam post receptam à Macedonibus Babylonem, et arcana eorum scrinia jam reserata Græcis atque patefacta; nullus illas viderit Berosus, nullus Hipparchus, nullus Ptolemæus; sed ne Chaldæorum quidem astronomorum ullus qui observationes suas ærâ

* M. LARCHER seems to treat this account with more respect than we are inclined to bestow on it: but it must be observed that it supplies him with a strong argument against the credibility of the statements of Porphyrius, which might possibly influence him, even unconsciously. Where the mode of recording events was so difficult, traditionary history must have had a proportionately great circulation, and this was indestructible.

Nabonasari consignassent etiam ante captam ab Alexandro Babylonem! Scriptorum qui res gestas Alexandri Magni memorie mandarunt fidem suggillant Strabo et Arrianus, et quidem ita ut ne ipsum Callisthenem Strabo ab eo sublestæ fidei crimine absolvat."

The second section of M. LARCHER's disquisition adds no great force of evidence to that which has been already adduced, and we will not detain our readers longer from other works deserving their attention.

ART. XI. *Réfutation en ce qui concerne le Maréchal Ney, &c.; i. e. A Refutation of what is advanced concerning Marshal Ney, in the Work of General Gourgaud, on the Campaign of 1815.* By M. GAMOT. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.

ART. XII. *Lettre au Général Gourgaud, &c.; i. e. A Letter to General Gourgaud, on his Relation of the Campaign of 1815.* 8vo. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.

GENERAL GOURGAUD's Narrative of the Military Operations which took place in France and Belgium, during the Hundred Days, has called forth a greater share of attention, both in the political and the military circles of France and England, than any contemporaneous or anterior *exposé* of the events of that critical period; and it has consequently shared the fate of all similar publications, causing the press to labour with the efforts of its adversaries and champions. Of the former class, we have now two specimens before us; one of them very violent, and the other differing in a more polite way with the opinions of this *ci-devant* aide-de-camp of the once mighty Emperor of France.

In our Number for December last, we gave a very copious account of General Gourgaud's performance; in which it was our chief endeavour to follow the narrator of the campaign of 1815, step by step, and to unravel the mystic clue by which he offers to conduct his reader through the laboured pages of his work. How far we succeeded in detecting his errors, and exposing his wilful misrepresentations, we leave our patient readers to judge for themselves; trusting only that our statements have thrown the true light on the most important event of which these latter times can boast. We shall see what the military and political writers of France think of the same work: but, as some time must necessarily elapse before all the arguments, *pro* and *con*, can be gone through, we have taken for a commencement the first two pamphlets which have appeared, and shall now examine them with the same
cautions

cautious research and unbiassed feelings which we allotted to the volume that caused their existence.

It must have been expected by General *Gourgaud*, that the accusations which he so liberally bestowed on Marshal *Ney* would cause a great sensation among the numerous friends and fellow-soldiers of that unfortunate leader; and we may therefore consider him to have been fully prepared to stand his ground against any opposition that might be made to his statements. To what extent he can carry this defence, we are not yet aware: but the public documents which M. GAMOT adduces, in order to prove that General *Gourgaud* has made wilful misrepresentations, are almost "damning proof" that he has indeed so done.

M. GAMOT commences his attack by stating that he has already entered the lists against the calumniators of the deceased Marshal, but has hitherto contented himself with merely detailing simple facts, to confute their assertions.

'At this moment,' he says, 'the dispute assumes a more serious form. M. *Gourgaud* does not advance, it is true, a single corroborative evidence, but he declares himself the organ of an imposing authority. As his work presents the appearance of a profound knowledge of the events which it describes, bare reasoning will hardly suffice to overthrow that which he affirms in so decisive a manner; and therefore I shall not make use of it. I have a method far more powerful: it consists in detailing the particular orders of the staff of the army, which are fortunately not all lost; and which, I hope, will prove, in the most decisive manner, that the recollections of General *Gourgaud* are not exact; that the reproaches with which he has loaded the Marshal will fall to the ground; and that he has no justice on his side, when he wishes to render that personage responsible for the events of the campaign.'

It appears that Marshal *Ney* had no idea that he was to have been employed in the campaign of 1815, and that he was in the country and totally unprepared when he received, on the 11th of June, a sudden order to join the army. At seven o'clock in the evening of the 15th, he arrived at Napoleon's head-quarters before Charleroy; when he was instantly dispatched to Gosselies, and ordered to take the command of the whole of the left.

M. *Gourgaud* asserts that *Ney* was to blame in the very outset of his career, for not having taken position at Quatre Bras on the evening of the 15th: but to answer this allegation M. GAMOT offers five distinct facts, of which one alone would have been sufficient:—how could Marshal *Ney*, with his *corps d'armée*, have driven Prince Bernard of Saxony from

Quatre Bras on the evening of the 15th, when *Ney* arrived at Charleroy only on that same evening at seven o'clock? Those of our readers, who have made this subject their study, well know the distance between Quatre Bras and Charleroy. In fact, the advanced guard of *Ney's* division only arrived before Quatre Bras at nine o'clock that night.

M. GAMOT then proceeds to shew that the Marshal had received no directions to occupy the important post just mentioned on the 15th, and quotes the General Orders of the day to prove his assertion; by which we find that Napoleon, in his instructions to *Ney*, makes no mention of Quatre Bras till the 16th, when he directs that officer to re-unite the Corps of *Reille* and *D'Erlon*, as well as that of Count *Walmy*, and, as soon as this junction was effected, to march forwards to the attack of the post of Quatre Bras.

So far, therefore, was the Marshal from being in fault on this occasion, that he was not even near the point assigned to him by General *Gourgaud*; and, when he did arrive there on the succeeding day, he found the Duke of Wellington; who (as M. GAMOT candidly acknowledges,) threw so many obstacles in his way that the orders of Napoleon could not be carried into effect. This is the fact which, we suppose, angered the chieftain and his adherents; and, as they could not very easily confess the truth, they invented an abominable falsehood to tarnish the memory of an unfortunate man.

We shall quote the Order, and its commentary, as given by the present author. 'Marshal *Ney*,' says M. GAMOT, 'maintained himself with great difficulty in his position*, and was far from repulsing the enemy, or being able to turn his right in order to co-operate with Napoleon in surrounding the Prussians.'

' "FOURTH ORDER.

' " *In advance of Fleurus, 16th June, 1815.*

' " *A quarter past three o'clock.*

' " M. le Maréchal, I wrote to you an hour ago, to tell you that the enemy were to be attacked by the Emperor at half past two, in the position which he has occupied between St. Amand and Bry. At this moment, the engagement has assumed a determined character. His Majesty charges me to tell you that you must manœuvre instantly, so as to surround the right of the enemy, and to fall on his rear. This part of their force is lost if you act vigorously: the fate of France is in your hands: hesitate not a moment, therefore, to make the movement which the Emperor

* Before Quatre Bras, at about two o'clock.

orders, and direct your force on the heights of Bry and St. Amand, to co-operate, in all probability, in a decisive victory.

“ The enemy will be taken in the toils at the moment that he seeks to unite his force with the English.

“ Signed, The Major-General,
“ Duke of DALMATIA.” *

‘ This order was delivered at six o'clock by M. *Forbin-Janson*. It may be imagined, from what has been already said, that the execution of it was impossible. The Marshal had before him more than 50,000 men against 17,000.*

From these details, it appears incontestably that Marshal *Ney* was blameless of any mismanagement or treachery up to the morning of the 17th. We shall now follow MM. *GAMOT* and *Gourgaud* a little farther, and see how great a share of verity appertains to their relations of the subsequent events.

We gave a very decided opinion of the cause of Count *D'Erlon*'s movement, and of the effrontery with which M. *Gourgaud* asserts that the appearance of *D'Erlon*'s division at *Fleurus* caused extreme astonishment in Napoleon and his staff, all of whom mistook this force for an enemy turning their flank. We said that no such feeling ever had place, and that *Bonaparte* and his Generals knew as well as Count *D'Erlon* the object of his appearance. Our opinion is well corroborated by M. *GAMOT*.

‘ As to the flank-movement of Count *D'Erlon*, of which M. *Gourgaud* cannot give the true motive, I inform him that it took place by the positive orders of Napoleon, and therefore that he needs not accuse either Marshal *Ney*, or any fatality, of this manœuvre, at which he affects such great astonishment.’

The author then quotes a letter from the Duke of Dalmatia, in which this fact is verified.

As a farther proof of the want of memory in M. *Gourgaud*, the present writer cites the contents of the 76th page of that officer's work; in which it is said that *Bonaparte* arrived at *Quatre Bras* on full gallop, at half past eleven on the 17th, and instantly placed 12 guns in battery, to cannonade the flying English. To controvert this statement, M. *GAMOT* cites an order of the Duke of Dalmatia, dated from *Ligny* at twelve, in which he informs *Ney* that the Emperor is about to take a position in advance of *Marbois*. ‘ Now certainly,’ says

* M. *GAMOT* falls into the same error of which he accuses General *Gourgaud*: the numbers here are conveniently swelled and diminished. See our Review of *Gourgaud*'s narrative, at the section concerning *Quatre Bras*.

M. GAMOT, ' Napoleon could not be at *Quatre Bras* at half past eleven, when he was still at *Ligny* at twelve o'clock.' The fact is, that *Bonaparte* arrived at *Marbois* only at one o'clock.

We hasten over the intermediate details, to arrive at the commentary on the battle of *Waterloo*; and in the very outset we observe this citation of an order of the day from the chief of the French staff.

“ *Field of Battle of Mont St.-Jean.*

“ As soon as the army shall be ranged in order of battle, at about an hour after mid-day, at the moment when the Emperor gives the order to Marshal *Ney*, the attack shall commence by forcing the village of *Mont St.-Jean*, where the intersection of the roads occurs. To effect this, the batteries of 12 guns of the 2d corps, and those of the 6th, shall unite to those of the 1st corps. These 24 guns shall fire on the troops occupying *Mont Saint-Jean*; and Count *D'Erlon* shall begin the attack by moving his left division in advance, and sustaining it, according to circumstances, by the divisions of the 1st corps.

“ The 2d corps shall advance in order to occupy Count *D'Erlon's* line. The sappers of the 1st corps will be ready to entrench themselves instantly on *Mont Saint-Jean*.”

By this reference, we find that M. *Gourgaud's* magnificent paragraph in p. 92. is “ shorn of its beams.” ‘ It was mid-day: eighty pieces of cannon commenced their fire,’ &c. The difference of an hour or two, in relating the details of such a battle as that of *Waterloo*, is very considerable; and, from this want of accuracy, General *Gourgaud* has greatly lessened the value of his work: for, if an author be inexact in a material point, how are we to expect that his minor details can be true pictures?

As M. GAMOT advances towards the conclusion of his examination of *Gourgaud's* narrative, his national feelings get the better of justice; and, after having liberally acknowledged several important facts in favour of the English combatants, he at once denies them the credit of the victory. We shall not endeavour to refute his arguments on this point, for we have already done it in refuting those of General *Gourgaud*; and to our critique on that performance we refer the reader.

We have before said concerning General *Gourgaud*, that his work offers several powerful contradictions of his statement that it was owing solely to the Prussians appearing in the evening that the French were defeated, and we may apply the same observation to this pamphlet by M. GAMOT, who more strenuously asserts this worn-out tale. Let the reader judge whether the following extract does not offer

some foundation for what we advance: — ‘The charge of cavalry,’ says the author, ‘made by the English at the commencement of the battle, had destroyed a considerable battery of cannon, and not only overthrown the right flank of one of the columns of the first corps, but had even put one of its divisions *hors de combat*: so that there were, relatively, but few infantry in order of battle there.’ * He then subjoins the statement that, at this juncture, *Ney* sent to his master to demand some more infantry to fill up the gap made by the British cavalry; when *Bonaparte* returned for answer that “*he had none remaining who were disposable*,” and this in the very beginning of the action! We ask, how can there still be persons who will insist that we should have lost the day if the Prussians had not appeared? Another instance of an eagerness to prove this fallacious assertion, which oversteps the bounds of discretion, and we have done: — ‘The French army,’ says this pamphleteer, ‘fell before the immense superiority of numbers. They yielded only to triple force. All was lost except their honour.’ *Certes!* this is a brilliant sentence: but, only three lines before it, comes this foil: — ‘The Anglo-Belgic troops, advancing at this period, forced all our positions. Our soldiers were exhausted with fatigue, ammunition was wanting, *il fallut se retirer*.’ Here the author makes his peace with the adherents of *M. Gourgaud*’s opinions, or endeavours to do so: for, by a note, he tells the world that he believes all the items contained in the General’s work, excepting only those which relate to his friend *Ney*. — The brochure concludes with a grand address to the manes of the fellow-soldiers of the deceased Prince of the Moskwa, which is above our comprehension.

“*Je pardonne aux erreurs où Mahomet t’entraîne*” is the motto of the second pamphlet; and this device will at once intimate the nature of the work. In fact, it is a mere repetition of several political points in which the author differs with *M. Gourgaud*, and which have already been so frequently canvassed on both sides of the Channel, that we should only tire our readers by entering into a formal examination of them. The author, who has signed his name (*C. MARCHAND*) to the letter, is an *ex-adjoint aux Commissaires de Guerre*, and has yet so much of the *esprit de corps* as to be unwilling to call in question any of the military feats detailed in *M. Gourgaud*’s narrative; though he has so far imbibed

* *M. GAMOT* adds this note: — ‘I have these details from Generals who justly merit the confidence of the whole army, and who were on the ground.’

the pure spirit of the *lys*, that he is determined to shew his zeal by cavilling at every paragraph which relates to the political conduct of *Bonaparte* and his adherents during the Hundred Days.

As a specimen of his style and matter, we shall translate his preface at length; which we conceive, with a remark or two on the body of the work, will be fully sufficient to answer every purpose for our reading friends.

'The French have given the name of *Mont St.-Jean* to the battle of the 18th of June, 1815; while the English have named it *Waterloo*; and the Prussians call it the battle of *La Belle Alliance*. It is the English designation which General *Gourgaud* has adopted, and I have not hesitated to employ it in replying to his book.

'But if it be reasonable to think that the name has nothing to do with the affair, in that instance, we cannot say so of those pages in which M. *Gourgaud* has written *Chamber of Deputies*, when the Chamber of *Representatives* is the subject of his reasonings. As there is no resemblance between this last and *la Chambre Introuvable*, and as both have existed in 1815, I have constantly restored the true name; and I must premise that, in the quotations which I make from the work of M. *Gourgaud*, it will be necessary to read *Chamber of Representatives* when his text says *Chamber of Deputies*. This remark was the more necessary, as there appears to be a great difference between a Chamber of Deputies and a Chamber of Representatives: at least, such is the inference which may be drawn from what passed in the latter sittings of the Chamber. An individual having, through error, addressed his petition "To the Chamber of the Representatives of the French nation," MM. *de Chalabre, de Chabriant*, and several others, exclaimed:—"WE ARE NOT THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE FRENCH NATION! TO THE ORDER OF THE DAY!!!" (*Moniteur*, of the 15th December, 1818.)'

Such sentences as the two following, which are to be found in the very outset of M. MARCHAND's work, are sufficient alone to condemn it with every reasonable man. Speaking of the French army and the battle of Waterloo, he says, 'These brave French, of whom we may assert that they yielded only on account of having conquered;' and, 'If Wellington overcame, so to speak, without his will being concerned, what might he not have done with the resources of his mind?' This is the first time that we have heard of an army being beaten *because it was victorious*; and the last time that, we hope, we shall ever be told that a General gained a battle *against his will*.

The whole publication is full of such glossing, and has no better ground of attack on *Gourgaud* than that he
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mishnamed the Chambers which sat during the Hundred Days, and that he called *Bonaparte L'Empereur* in his recital of the events of that period; whereas, says M. MARCHAND, that personage was intitled to no such distinction, being only sovereign of Elba. We ask this querulous *royaliste*, or whatever he be, whether *Bonaparte* would not have been fully recognized as Emperor by him, and by his brethren of the Commissariat, if he had gained instead of lost the battle of Waterloo? If M. MARCHAND cannot offer a better tribute to the powers that be, we recommend him not to meddle with their affairs, but rather to solicit re-employment in the *Bureau aux Commissaires de Guerre*, where his quill may find its true office, — in casting up official accounts.

ART. XIII. *Histoire de France, &c.; i. e. A History of France during the Wars of Religion.* By CHARLES LACRETELLE.

[Article concluded from the last Appendix, p. 536.]

FRANCE now contained three great political parties; the League, headed by Henry Duke of *Guise*; the Protestants, by Henry of *Navarre*, now approaching to his 30th year, and discovering all that generosity which afterward gained him the heart of the nation; and, finally, the weak and worthless Henry III., who sought to maintain his power by opposing one party to the other, and by acting on the perfidious policy of his mother, Catharine de Medicis.

‘What a succession of crimes is presented to us by the annals of the reign of Henry III. ! There were three methods, by any of which a man of property might escape the punishment of his violent acts; by lending money to the king, by making presents to his minions, or by marrying one of the queen-mother’s maids of honour. Feudal barbarism was less hideous in its atrocities: the progress of knowledge was rendered subservient to criminal purposes; and it was considered the *ne plus ultra* of awkwardness to incur a capital punishment for causing the death of an enemy: the scaffold being reserved for the common people and the Huguenots. A place of refuge for assassins was easily to be found either in the monasteries or the camp: in the former they remained till they were forgotten, and in the latter they became only more terrible. Law-suits were often terminated by violent means; guardians poisoned their wards; and in one year two youths of noble family assassinated their guardians, and took possession of their estates without molestation. Examples even occurred of men of property inviting their neighbours to entertainments, in order that they might murder them with the greater ease.

‘ Since

' Since France had become corrupted, the most depraved of the Italians had chosen it for their country ; and people of that nation directed the finances, and provided for the expences of the army. Having advanced money to the King and all his court, they successively entered into possession of the estates belonging to the first families of France. The queen-mother obtained church-livings for her priests, her astrologers, and her poisoners ; and the management of the mint was intrusted to Italians who were perpetually reducing the weight of the coin. Such was their unfeeling ingenuity, that they increased the revenue of the king to three times its amount in the flourishing reigns of his predecessors. In fact, Henry III., whose authority was so often disobeyed, practised extortion worthy of an Asiatic despot : but it was in vain that his finances were replenished ; and the most prodigal of monarchs passed not three months without experiencing the extreme of poverty. Rendered furious by his necessities, he disregarded all sound policy, and levied enormous taxes on the clergy at large, at the moment when he made magnificent presents to certain portions of their body. His minions and guards formed an army for him, which almost always invested the parliament, and compelled the registering of money-bills notwithstanding every objection. The members of that body were themselves frequently obliged to pay considerable taxes : but on these occasions the King condescended to take the tone of a suppliant. When an individual died with the reputation of wealth, the King's minions anticipated the public officer in visiting the house and the strong box, from which they carried their disgraceful plunder to the Louvre. Offices were purchased at a high price because they afforded a plea for practising a number of extortions : but the exactor was often stripped, and made to give way to some new depredator, who deemed himself strong in the favour of his master. Usury was no longer considered as dishonourable : but usurers often received a visit from armed debtors, and were obliged to give up in one day the fruits of fifty years of cruelty and fraud. The crimes committed by men of opulence were a productive source of wealth to the crown, for the King set a price on his clemency. When a country is in such a situation, it is of little consequence whether it be at peace or at war ; war, indeed, seems the only means of introducing a favourable change.'

Henry III. had no children ; and the death of the younger brother in 1584 rendered Henry of *Navarre* the presumptive heir to the crown of France ; a circumstance that afforded the League fresh arguments for inflaming the people with the dread of a heretic sovereign. They now ventured to prescribe laws to the King, and even took the field with an army, until they obliged the feeble and wavering Henry III. to annul all edicts in favour of the Protestants, and to cancel his late pacification with them. The executive power was thus

thus in fact transferred from the court to the leaders of the League, and civil war was revived with all its horrors. The scene of operations extended over the neighbourhood of the Loire, Languedoc, Burgundy, and Champagne; blood was shed profusely in each of these fertile provinces; English, German, and Swiss soldiers were introduced into France; and the royal authority dwindled into insignificance in the midst of these scenes of confusion. In 1587 the Catholics again took the field under a new leader, *Joyeuse*, hitherto better known as a courtier than a warrior. Henry of *Navarre*, after having endeavoured to divide the attention of his enemies by repeated marches and countermarches, took post in the plain of Coutras, in the northern part of Guienne; where his inferior force was soon threatened by the approach not only of *Joyeuse* but of two other armies.

Battle of Coutras. — ‘*Joyeuse* was afraid of sharing with the leaders of these armies the glory of a victory which would give him the first rank in the League. He advanced, and made some prisoners, one of whom brought him the information that the King of *Navarre* awaited him on the Droune. *Joyeuse*, transported with joy, exclaimed, “*Your liberty, my friend, shall be the reward of this news!*” He hastened to communicate it to his army: they intreated to be led on immediately, they embraced each other, and the young men whispered, “We shall soon see Paris; and we shall carry thither the King of *Navarre*, tied hands and feet.” They wagered with each other who should be first engaged, and who should kill the greatest number of enemies; and, during the whole night, their preparations seemed to be rather for a festival than for a battle. With the dawn of day was seen a too magnificent spectacle; the court of the King of France was never more splendid than this camp: the men of family all appeared in coats of velvet or silk, embroidered with gold and silver; their helmets were ornamented with plumes; precious stones dazzled on their armour; and they wore scarfs, the valued gifts of their mistresses, whose richly decorated portraits hung from their bosoms. If, however, their dress was effeminate, their air was martial; they managed their fiery steeds with dexterity; and they swore not to yield an inch of territory to the enemy. The dreadful words, “No quarter!” resounded through the ranks long before the battle began.

‘In the camp of the King of *Navarre*, all was austere and silent: the officer was distinguished from the soldier only by a scarf of the most simple description: and, their armour was all of iron. The men of family appeared as proud of their poverty as of their wounds; and their robust old age proved their long services. The ranks were closed, and the squadrons advanced in order. The noise of the drums and trumpets now ceased, the ministers of the Gospel began prayers, all knelt down, and pious hermits could not have shewn greater fervour than was seen in this camp during prayers. *Joyeuse*, from the other side of the river, saw
with

with contempt these soldiers on their knees. "*They are afraid*," said he to *Lavardin*. "Do not deceive yourself," said that officer, who had fought against them: "they are never more terrible than on arising from prayers." The Protestants rose from their knees, singing with a loud voice one of *Marot's* psalms, which begins thus: "This is the happy day when God shall crown his elect." — The ministers then placed themselves in the ranks, taking off their clerical dress, and assuming the armour of warriors.'

Henry soon made the most able dispositions, seizing an eminence, and making it a shelter for a part of his troops; while in front of his squadrons he placed *tirailleurs*, and instructed them to fire so as to spread alarm among the enemy's horse. His left wing appearing weak, a detachment of infantry was sent quickly along his front to reinforce it. The enemy saw this movement, and considered it as a mark of disorder: but the detachment passed with rapidity; and Henry's troops, though only 7000 in number, presented a compact mass, posted so as to support each other by easy movements. At eight o'clock the fire of the artillery began; that of Henry, though consisting of only a few pieces, proceeded from the eminence, and was destructive; that of the Catholics, though much greater, was fired from the plain, and had little effect. The Catholic cavalry rushed forwards to the charge, and seemed to carry all before them; they drove back a part of the line of the Protestants, and advanced even to the baggage. Henry marked their progress, and held himself in readiness to fall on their second body, as it came up to support the first; he assailed it before it could effect a junction, threw it into disorder, and surrounded *Joyeuse*, who fell when on the point of being made prisoner by Henry. His surviving officers surrendered: the soldiers followed their example, and were treated with humanity; and of the whole army, only a few thousands of those who made the first attack retired in order.

Such was the battle of Coutras, which, however, proved wholly indecisive against an enemy so greatly superior: but the dissensions of the Catholics now led the way to scenes of horror among themselves. In 1588 the leaders of the League became the avowed masters of Paris, and obliged Henry III. to withdraw to Blois: it was then that the latter perpetrated an act unfortunately too frequent in that age of depravity, — the assassination of the Duke of *Guise*, whom he decoyed to a meeting of council, and caused to be put to death in the passage leading to the cabinet. On learning the fulfilment of his nefarious orders, the King went into the apartments of his mother, and said, "I am now a King, for the Duke of
Guise

Guise is no more." Catharine, however, was cold and reserved: she had not been instrumental in advising this sanguinary measure, and she had lived too long to cherish great expectations from such a policy.

The assassination of the chief of the League, and soon afterward that of a high clerical dignitary, his brother, Cardinal of Lorraine, incensed all the zealous Catholics against Henry III., and obliged him, for self-preservation, to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants. Uniting his forces with those of Henry of *Navarre*, they marched jointly against the capital; which was defended by the soldiers of the League, paid by Philip II., and commanded by the Duke of *Mayenne*, the surviving brother of the Duke of *Guise*. It was during this siege (1589), that the weak and unfortunate Henry III. was assassinated by a Catholic fanatic; and the war, if not lessened in point of magnitude, became simplified in its object, there being now only two parties; viz. Henry of *Navarre*, and the League, the former supported by our Elizabeth, the latter by Philip II.

We may now bid adieu to assassination and desultory warfare; the notice that remains relating to the exploits of armies and the competition of eminent commanders. Henry, unable to enter Paris, withdrew towards Normandy, to await succours from England; and, though greatly inferior in numbers, he took advantage of a fortified position at Arques, near Dieppe, so effectually as to repulse the reiterated attacks of the Duke of *Mayenne*. It was on the occasion of this success that he wrote a remarkable note to *Crillon*, one of his most gallant military companions. "*Pends-toi, brave Crillon! nous avons combattu à Arques, et tu n'y étais pas. Adieu, brave Crillon! je vous aime à tort et à travers.*" Encouraged by this success, and reinforced by English artillery, Henry marched towards Paris, and continued his operations for several months without an opportunity of fighting a pitched battle; until the opposite army, strengthened by a late arrival of Spaniards, came in sight of him at Ivry, on the banks of the river, Eure. The conflict was long and obstinate; the Duke of *Mayenne*, at the head of the French Catholics, performed the duties of an able General; and the Spaniards under Count *Egmont* (son of the Count of that name who had been beheaded by the Duke of *Alva*) fought with desperate fury: but the activity of Henry, and the intelligence of his officers, at length put the Protestants in possession of the field. Paris was now closely invested; the horrors of famine began to be felt in that populous capital; the citizens murmured; and they would soon have driven the garrison to surrender, had not their hopes
been

been kept alive by the approach of a Spanish army from the Netherlands, less formidable by its numbers than by its discipline, and the admirable judgment of its commander, the Duke of *Parma*. Henry was now matched with the first General of the age; on each side were displayed signal proofs of military talent: but the Duke accomplished the relief of the capital without allowing himself to be forced to a battle, and finally made good his retreat in the depth of winter, notwithstanding all the annoyance of his enterprising opponent.

The subsequent passage, brief as it is, deserves to be noticed, as indicative both of the susceptible disposition of Henry, and of the frankness with which he converted his enemies into friends:

‘Hardly had the king closed the campaign of 1590, when chance led him to the chateau of Cœuvres, the residence of *Gabrielle d’Estrées*; she was only 18 years of age; a perfect beauty, of the mildest temper, and the most pleasing cast of mind; and her modesty greatly heightened her charms, while it gave to her features an expression of lively sensibility. She lived at this time with her father, a distinguished artillery officer, and zealous adherent of the King.—In 1591, Henry carried on few sieges and fought no pitched battle; his time being chiefly employed in useful negotiations. In one of his marches, he entered a castle where the Chancellor *Chiverni* had been living retired since his loss of favour under Henry III. He addressed this magistrate with a cordiality which affected him; *Chiverni* was gained over, and deemed himself fortunate in the opportunity of attaching himself to such a monarch. After having behaved weakly under the weakest of kings, he became under a vigilant prince an active, firm, and sincere minister.’

The next year (1592) again called forth a brilliant display of tactical skill, Henry having laid siege to the important city of Rouen with a large army, and the Duke of *Parma* being once more enjoined by Philip to enter France in the hope of delivering it. Henry, unwilling to lose the fruit of his past labours, continued the operations of the siege, left his main body in their lines, and advanced, with a chosen band, to watch the approach of his antagonist. Here, however, he encountered great danger, and the progress of the siege was essentially retarded by his absence. He was obliged at last to relinquish it; and the Duke of *Parma* entered the place, and proceeded down the banks of the Seine to accomplish the reduction of a tract of country which was deemed necessary to the future safety of the city. The localities were here favourable to the active mind of Henry; who occupied the defiles by which the Spaniards had arrived, and fortified his camp against their expected attack. This sudden march

was

was not foreseen by the enemy: the Duke of *Mayenne* and other officers in the Spanish camp considered the situation of their allies as extremely perilous: but no difficulties seemed insurmountable to the Duke of *Parma*. He availed himself of the high ground between him and the royalists to move from his position; threatened with his cavalry an attack on their works; taking advantage of the occurrence of a fog, crossed the river on boats and rafts, hastily collected; and protected his retreat first by cavalry, and finally by artillery, in a manner which called forth the warmest admiration of his opponents. This was the last exploit of the Duke; who, having been wounded in an action with Henry's troops, and always neglecting himself for the performance of his military duties, became unable to take the field again, and died, partly from the consequences of the wound, partly from the injury caused to his health by fourteen successive campaigns.

Henry, aware that his religious creed was now the grand obstacle to his acquisition of the crown, and the pacification of his subjects, determined to adopt a profession of faith that would be agreeable to the great majority of the nation. His conversion took place in 1593, and was followed in the next year by his entry into Paris, the grand focus of the League. Still the bigotry of certain Catholics and the treasures of Spain protracted the submission of the kingdom at large; and Henry had many fatiguing marches and obstinate sieges to accomplish, before he could dissolve the last links of opposition. The young Duke of *Guise*, third of the name, now (1594) came over to him, and was followed, though not till after a considerable interval, by his uncle, the Duke of *Mayenne*. At last, after an alternation of success and failure in the operations against the Spaniards on the side of Flanders, peace was concluded with the gloomy and obstinate Philip II. in 1598. The edict of Nantes, passed in the same year, tranquillized the Protestants; and the submission of Bretagne extended the sway of Henry over every province of the kingdom.

M. LACRETELLE's fourth volume is given to the remaining twelve years of the reign of this generous and beneficent prince. After so long a continuance of commotion and bloodshed, it was a grateful task to Henry and his faithful minister to direct their efforts to the reduction of the burdens of the people.

'What activity was displayed in every department by *Sully*! Corruption was assailed on all sides. His first labours had the effect of increasing the product of the great branches of by several hundred thousand pounds a-year. The tax

days were not only farmed but sub-farmed ; and the leasees in the latter case paid nearly twice as much as government received from their principals. A royal edict cancelled all sub-farms, and *Sully* obtained from the farmers-general as large a payment to the crown as they had derived from their subordinates; while the lower classes were relieved from various burdens which they paid to their feudal lords. It was in vain that the Duke *d'Epemon*, in the name of these rapacious nobles, exclaimed against the new measures as tyrannical; *Sully* defended in his presence all the plans which he had caused the King to adopt: *D'Epemon* ventured to let fall threatening expressions: *Sully* recollected that he was still a soldier, and laid his hand on his sword; and the council-room was on the point of being stained with blood. "My friend," said Henry, "if he challenge you, I will be your second." *D'Epemon* did not again appear at the council.

'The next step was to put an end to arbitrary tolls, and to establish the responsibility of public officers. Before this time, the collectors of taxes kept two sets of books, one public, the other private; in the latter of which were recorded all irregular receipts. *Sully*, however, laid down clear and unequivocal rules, and insisted that all should be open to inspection. The arrears of the army were scrupulously paid, and the soldiers thus deprived of all pretence for oppressing the people. The peasant, after forty years of disorder, ceased to tremble at the sight of a soldier, and looked on him as the protector of his harvest: the foreign mercenaries were discharged; even the Swiss regiments underwent a reduction; and the arsenals of Henry became the best supplied of any in Europe.'

We have towards the end of the work (Vol. IV. p. 342.) an account of the extensive scheme formed by Henry IV. for the humiliation of the house of Austria; which, mistress as it was of Spain, the Netherlands, and part of Italy, threatened Europe in those days with a military despotism not unlike the tyranny of *Bonaparte* in ours. The plan attributed to Henry is interesting both in itself, and as exhibiting the very material changes that have since occurred in the state of Europe.—A fund of 700,000*l.* sterling was ready in the French treasury; a farther supply of two millions annually was insured for three years; and all the minor continental states were ready to lend an assisting hand to him who proposed to assert their independence. The Duke of *Savoy* hoped for a share of the Milanese; Venice, an older and more faithful ally, flattered herself with the acquisition of Sicily: the Pope would have had a portion of the Neapolitan territory; the Swiss, of Franche Comté and Alsace: the Dutch hoped to acquire a part of Belgium; the Elector of *Bavaria* looked higher, and aspired to the imperial dignity: Denmark and Sweden were expected to support the Protestant princes

in the north of Germany; while France, the centre and main-spring of the confederacy, was to direct an army of 40,000 men towards the Maese; a second towards the Pyrenees, to oppose invasion from Spain; and a third across the Alps, to aid in the projected attacks on the Italian dominions of the enemy.

Henry IV. was the first king of the Bourbon branch; the line of Valois having expired with Henry III. In the age of which we have been treating, the voice of the people had no influence on the measures of government, but all power was divided between the court and the nobles. The latter in France, as in other feudal states, held their abode in castles, and were accustomed to traverse the country and to appear in the capital at the head of a body of armed followers. Even the governor of a province, or large town, though holding his commission from the crown, was much less dependent on the sovereign than in our times. In this state of things, the exertions of the executive government were far inferior to those of any of the improved countries of Europe at the present day. Hence the difficulty experienced by the predecessors of Henry IV. in subjugating the Protestants; who, according to some opinions, did not form above a tenth, and certainly not above a fifth, of the population. We are, however, to take into account that, in point of zeal, and still more in point of intelligence, they were greatly superior to their opponents.

In conclusion: we can by no means regard M. LACRETELLE as fortunate in the choice of his subject; all except the last volume is replete with war, and, in a great measure, with massacre; it is a time in which we see the "father divided against the son, and the arm of the brother lifted up against the brother." Another consideration of much importance relates to the materials from which this work is composed: they are not official documents, but memoirs written by individuals who figured more or less in the struggles of the age; they are consequently full of personal anecdotes and insulated details; a remark which applies to the best of them all, the memoirs of *Sully*. M. LACRETELLE has, however, combined these materials with judgment; adopting all that appears worthy of credit, and rejecting all that is exaggerated or contradictory: but the consequence is that his production abounds much more in anecdote than in general events, or views of policy. Still it is of a character greatly superior to those which generally fall to our lot to peruse; and it is, in particular, remarkable for animation of narrative and delineation of character: no author exhibiting more clearly the traits of the leading men of the age, and none being more successful in carrying his reader along the course of events.

ART. XIV. *De l'Industrie Française, &c. ; i. e. On the productive Industry of France*, by Count CHAPTAL, formerly Minister for the Home Department, now a Member of the Institute, (Scientific Class,) one of the chief Officers of the Legion of Honour, Knight of the Royal Order of St. Michael, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 248. and 462. Paris. 1819.

THE name of CHAPTAL is well known to those who have followed the progress of chemical science in France, and not altogether new to the more numerous class who have studied nothing of France but her politics. A native of Montpellier, and educated as a physician and naturalist, M. DE CHAPTAL was approaching to middle age at the time of the Revolution, and was called to Paris by government, in 1793, to aid in the manufacture of gun-powder, at a moment when the new republic was assailed by the armies of almost all Europe. Intrusted with the direction of a great manufacture, he succeeded in simplifying the process and increasing the quantity produced to such an extent, that the French armies no longer experienced a deficiency of this grand engine of warfare.

In 1798 he was chosen a member of the Institute, and was advanced, after the rise of *Bonaparte*, (in 1800,) to the high station of Minister of the Home Department;—a situation that enabled the lover of science to extend an effectual patronage to the productive industry of his country, M. DE C. accordingly invited many intelligent foreigners into France, and introduced a number of useful improvements. In 1804, he resigned his place of minister, but continued at Paris, cultivating the intimacy of men of science, and prosecuting his chemical studies. His misfortune, in a political sense, was his adherence to *Bonaparte*, particularly in 1815, after his return from Elba; when he accepted a peerage from his former master, and lost his claim to the confidence of the Bourbons. He is consequently best known for his cultivation of science; in which career we have noticed successively (*inter alia*) his “*Elements of Chemistry*,” (M. R. Vol. vii.);—his “*Treatise on Vineyards*,” (Vol. xxxviii.);—and his “*Chemistry applied to the Arts*,” (Vol. liii.) He is still in the direction of large chemical establishments, and has been the discoverer of several processes of great utility.

No man could be better qualified than M. DE CHAPTAL to render an account of the productive industry of France: he has described its state at two very distinct periods, viz. in 1789, prior to the Revolution; and its present condition, after a lapse of thirty years. His book is divided into four parts, viz. Vol. I. Part 1. Commerce of France in 1789, treated first with regard to particular countries, as Spain, Switzerland,

Italy,

Italy, England, &c., and afterward (p. 132.) in a more comprehensive form, exhibiting the total imports and exports prior to 1789. — Part 2. Agriculture; its present state, with relation to corn-culture; pasturage; vines; silk; hemp, and flax. This is followed by an estimate of the lands appropriated to woods and forests; of the different rent of land in different departments; of the capital employed in agriculture; and, lastly, of the annual value of agricultural produce raised in France.

Vol. II. Part 3. Manufactures; improvements in mechanics and chemistry; manufacture of silks; woollens; linens; cottons; hardware; leather; salt; sugar; soap; hats; paper; spirituous liquors, &c. — Part 4. On regulations for productive industry; interference of the French government under *Colbert*; rules prescribed to the manufacturers; on the merits of treaties of commerce; on the privileges of incorporations, apprenticeships, &c.

Agriculture. — Of the surface of France, at least the productive part of that surface, the

Arable ground occupies nearly	one-half;
Forests and plantations,	- one-eighth;
Pasturage and meadows,	- one-eighth;
Vines, - - - - -	- one-twenty-second;
Heath and bad land, -	one-thirteenth.

In the mode of cultivating the ground, whether for corn or vines, and still more in the management of pasture, great improvements have been introduced in France within the last thirty years, and from a very obvious cause. Before the Revolution, the best lands were holden by the clergy, who had only a life-interest in them, and, consequently, no motive for their improvement; or by the great nobles, whose minds, occupied with the splendor of Paris or Versailles, were seldom directed to their possessions in the country. A third class, the peasantry, derived from their labours nothing beyond a bare subsistence; and they were discouraged by their poverty, by the oppressive operation of tithes, and by other impolitic burdens, from all idea of improving the ground. Since the Revolution, things have been altogether altered: taxes are distributed equally; the pernicious relics of the feudal system are abrogated; and the peasant is, in many cases, the proprietor of the land which he cultivates: their occupancies are too small for corn-culture, but of sufficient extent for vines. In former times, the rotation of crops was very little known in France, the farmers adhering blindly to the old routine of wheat in one year, oats for the next, and fallow in the third; and the last proved, till very lately, the chief resource of cattle, for it is only since 1790 that the sowing of grass has become general in France. The effects

effects have been most beneficial, as well in increasing the number of cattle as in improving the ground by their manure; and, in travelling through the country, the eye is struck with the most remarkable difference: the cattle in the districts in which artificial grasses are unknown being poor, and the ground unproductive, while, in the other provinces, almost every acre is made useful.

Potatoes were long neglected in France, even by the peasantry, but their value has of late been felt in seasons of deficient corn-crops. Government has therefore taken an active part in augmenting the produce of them; and, though far less cultivated than in England, they are now raised to an extent that will mitigate very materially the hardships of future scarcity.

Merino sheep were introduced into France by the unfortunate Louis XVI., who caused a flock to be imported, and placed under the care of intelligent persons at his newly purchased residence of Rambouillet. In 1796, on the conclusion of the first war with Spain, a farther import to the amount of 4000 Merinos took place, and flocks of this description are now found in various parts of France. Their wool is understood to have maintained its fineness; while, by crossing the native breeds, the wool of the latter has been greatly improved. The introduction of the Merinos was moreover the first thing that induced landholders in France to give attention to wool-growing: till then, it would have been deemed almost ridiculous to expend money on a sheep-fold, or to lay down instructions for the improvement of a flock, such vulgar cares being left to common shepherds.

Our readers will not have forgotten the project of *Bona-parte*, at the time of our Orders in Council, (1808 and 1809,) for supplying the want of West-India sugar by the extraction of saccharine matter from beet-root. M. DE C. is a chemist, and insists largely (Vol. I. p. 158. 160.) on the practicability and even expediency of this process; maintaining that sixty acres thus appropriated would supply fifteen tons of sugar, and an equal quantity of molasses, besides affording in the refuse a most healthy nourishment for cattle. These results are founded, he says, on an experience of six years; and this culture, though partaking as yet of the imperfections of a new process, will, if not checked by a tax, produce sugar equally cheap with that of the West-India colonies.

Commerce. — The work of M. DE C. is somewhat deficient in late Custom-house returns. Though the state of trade between France and other countries in 1789 is given with great clearness, and, with reference to the present period, a number of general remarks are added on the probable course
of

of commerce in a season of profound peace, still we have few statements of actual exports and imports; owing probably to the yet unsettled state of trade, and to the almost unparalleled distress of late years.

TABLE of the VALUE of EXPORTS and IMPORTS from France in 1787, 1788, 1789.

Corn, Spirituous Liquors, and other Articles of Provision.

		Imports.	Exports.
1787	(Sterling) £	8,200,000	£ 9,300,000
1788	- -	10,000,000	10,100,000
1789	- -	12,500,000	9,500,000

Raw Materials for Manufacture.

1787	- -	7,800,000	1,800,000
1788	- -	6,900,000	1,850,000
1789	- -	7,000,000	1,900,000

Manufactured Articles of all Kinds.

1787	- -	4,800,000	6,300,000
1788	- -	2,900,000	6,400,000
1789	- -	2,600,000	6,400,000

Total of Imports and Exports, including Cattle, Drugs, &c. in addition to the above.

1787	- -	25,500,000	18,000,000
1788	- -	23,200,000	18,000,000
1789	- -	25,600,000	17,700,000

The great excess of the imports over the exports in these years arose from the trade of France with her colonies, from which she received produce of a value of nearly 10,000,000l. sterling annually; while her exports to them were regularly under 5,000,000l. Of this large amount of produce, the single colony of St. Domingo furnished a value of 6,000,000l., and supplied the mother-country with the means of extensive exports to Hamburgh and the north of Europe. The case is now much altered; and M. DE C. is inclined (Vol. I. p. 99.) to consider the future intercourse of France and England as likely to be limited to a small number of articles, whether of produce or of manufactures. We, on the other hand, anticipate a great variety and extent of exchanges, whenever either of the respective governments shall deem it expedient to remove the existing restrictions. No one but a manufacturer can conceive into how many qualities, or shades of qualities, the preparation of a particular article, such as cotton, is subdivided; or how advantageous it is for England to make an importation of certain qualities from France,

while France finds her account in drawing other qualities from us. Of this fact, the two countries had a satisfactory proof in the few years of unrestricted commerce which followed the mercantile treaty of 1786: the intercourse at that time was very active; our assortments were rendered much more complete; and the exports of our merchants, whether to the Continent of Europe, to the United States, or to Spanish America, were increased by our command of articles which our home-manufacturers could not have furnished.*

Manufactures. — In this department of French statistics, the information of M. DE CHAPTAL is recent and copious; and it shews beyond a doubt that the progress of improvement in France, if less rapid than in England, has been much greater than that of any other country. The Revolution cancelled, at one blow, those old standing regulations which had so long held industry captive, and checked the spirit of invention. England, also, has had her compulsory enactments as to manufactures, in the laws of Edward IV., Richard III., Henry VII., and Henry VIII.: but the existence of a representative body, the aversion to recur (as in France) to the executive power on every occasion, and, above all, the Revolution of 1688, caused these regulations to fall into disuse, and enabled English manufacturers to give free scope to their ingenuity, while their neighbours were in fetters. Till towards the year 1660, almost all the manufactures of France had been confined to coarse qualities; fine woollens were imported from Holland and Spain; fine silks from Italy; stockings from England; linen and lace from Brabant and Holland. About that time, *Colbert* became minister of finance, and introduced a number of regulations for the extension of trade; inviting foreigners to settle in France, and granting a bounty on ship-building, and a farther bounty on a variety of exports and imports: the effect of which, and of other government-interferences, was to carry the number of looms in the woollen manufacture to more than 40,000 in six years. The next step in this artificial system was to attempt to insure a permanent reputation to French woollens, by imposing strict regulations on the mode of manufacture: an act or *ordonnance* of August, 1669, prescribed the length and breadth of the different kinds of cloth then in fashion, the serges, druggets, &c.: obliging the manufacturers, under a heavy penalty, to employ frames on a new plan, and to

* This topic has been happily illustrated by Mr. D. Bantatyne, in a pamphlet reported in our Number for August, 1816.

destroy

destroy all frames of different dimensions. Inspectors were appointed to examine the wool on sale, and to superintend the enforcement of these peremptory orders; and so minute were the regulations, that even the number of threads in a yard of cloth were prescribed. All this took place at the desire of the associated manufacturers, and was considered for a time as the safeguard of French industry: but experience at length shewed, that countries less shackled in their mode of work were likely to become formidable competitors. The resource in such cases was not a decided change, but a modification of the regulations, by a new *ordonnance* of the king: in the Levant trade, for instance, the first act (1669) was qualified by a subsequent one in 1697, and by a farther regulation in 1708. On this plan of change and renewed change, but still adhering to positive regulations, the French manufacturers proceeded for more than a century: when at last, in 1779, an order was issued, giving every person leave to follow his own method, provided that he distinguished the goods thus made from those that were manufactured agreeably to the regulations. This, however, lasted scarcely a year; the power of habit and prejudice prevailed; and the royal order of 1780 and 1781 threw back manufacturing industry into its former fetters; from which they were not relieved till the dreadful convulsion of 1789.

M. DE C. exhibits in a striking light (Vol. II. p. 317.) the injury caused to France by the exclusive privileges of corporations, and the mischievous effects of the law which prevented a workman from settling in business in any town except that in which he had served an apprenticeship. This law is of very old date: in 1755 it was partially abrogated: but the four principal manufacturing towns in the kingdom, Paris, Lyons, Rouen, and Lille, persisted in adhering to their old privileges. Foreign artisans were also prohibited from settling in France; and it was not till 1767 that this absurd restriction was withdrawn. The increase of population in France, about a sixth in the last thirty years of war and revolution, is owing, in a great measure, to the facility now given to workmen to set up in business at an early age, which leads in general to their marrying; and it is calculated that the number of married artisans in the towns of France is at present double its amount under the tyranny of the corporations. The other causes of increased population have been the introduction of the cow-pox, and the general division of landed property.

In M. DE CHAPTAL's second volume, we find returns and calculations of the actual quantities of silk, woollen, linen, cotton, and other articles at present manufactured in France;

and gladly would we extract his information on these points, did not our limits forbid us to dwell longer on such topics, and oblige us to confine ourselves to the following amusing and instructive anecdote:

' In 1802, Mr. Fox and Lord Cornwallis were at Paris, and were invited to visit the Louvre, where a grand exhibition was made of the products of French industry. These distinguished foreigners expressed great admiration at the richness and beauty of the various articles: but Mr. Fox remarked that the ingenuity of the French seemed all directed to objects of luxury; and that he saw in no part of the exhibition those articles, not for display but use, though at the same time highly finished, which abound so much in England. I felt the justice of his observation, and took him to the shop of a cutler from the small town of Thiers in Auvergne, the inhabitants of which are employed in the manufacture of plain hardware; making knives at 9d. per dozen; penknives and scissors at 8d.; forks at 5d., and razors from 3s. to 8s. per dozen. I desired the cutler to shew me samples of these different articles: but it was with no little difficulty that I prevailed on him to fetch them from the back part of his shop, whither he had consigned them, to leave room for a display of some guns and cutlery of which he had superintended the manufacture. The low price and substantial quality of these articles surprized Mr. Fox, who filled his pockets with them, and declared that there was nothing of the kind so cheap in England. I next took him to a watchmaker from Besançon, where he found watches, cased in silver, at 11s. 6d. each; he bought half-a-dozen, and frankly told me that he had now quite a different opinion of the state of productive industry in France. What would he have said at *this* day, on seeing all our succeeding improvements as to price and quality?'

From this and other passages, apprehensions may be excited in many of our countrymen regarding the future prosperity of our manufactures; labour being cheaper by one-third on the opposite shores of the Channel. Enough certainly appears from these volumes to shew that any farther increase of our taxation would be ruinous; and that it is of the greatest importance to reduce our national expenditure so as to become relieved from certain burdens, such as the very impolitic tax lately imposed on foreign wool:—but, with a resolute determination to maintain peace, and to give free scope to productive industry, we see no reason for our manufacturers to despair. France is deficient in three main points, viz. Capital, Water-communication, and Fuel: her merchants have yet to learn the precious lesson of transacting business for a small profit; and a considerable time must elapse ere the national energy can be strongly pointed in the direction of trade.

Similar

Similar observations apply to Germany; and the Netherlands, which alone are exempt from them, are, like ourselves, overburdened by taxation. The more timid among our countrymen are likely to derive encouragement from the apprehensions of M. DE C. himself, as expressed in the passage (Vol. II. p. 417.) relative to the custom-duties of France. In that country, the customs form a comparatively small part of the revenue, seldom exceeding two or 3,000,000*l.* sterling: which has led to discussions, which in England unfortunately it would be idle to entertain, relative to the expediency of the total abolition of these customs, or at least of all such as exceed 15 per cent. on the imported article. Count C. gives a decided opinion for the retention of these duties, less as a financial object than as a method of protecting certain manufactures, such as hardware and cottons, which would otherwise be unable to stand the competition of England and Germany. To legislate for the introduction or extension of particular manufactures is in general very bad policy, being in short nothing else than patronizing a part at the expence of the whole. The only case in which such interference is admissible is after the erection of works and the investment of capital, on the principle that of two evils the greater would be to allow the labour to be lost, and the works to decay.

It must not, however, be inferred that M. DE CHAPTAL approves of much interference on the part of government in matters of trade: for he expresses the contrary opinion very decidedly, when treating on the question of the monopoly or the free growth of tobacco: a plant which forms a very conspicuous article in the French budget. During the Revolution, its culture was laid open: but, in the reign of *Bonaparte*, the Duke of *Gaëta*, his well known finance-minister, deemed it expedient to recur to the old plan of a limited growth, and a monopoly of the manufacture in the hands of government. Tobacco is accordingly cultivated only in particular districts, chiefly in the north-east of France, and by licences from the Excise. It was much debated in the last session of the French House of Commons, whether this restriction should be continued, or the cultivation thrown entirely open; the decision was for the restriction: but M. DE CHAPTAL takes a different side; and he manifests (p. 168.) that, when the culture was free, the quantity of tobacco raised in France amounted in the leaf to 11,000 tons, while, since the limitation, it has not averaged 3000. His plan would be to reduce the duty (at present very high) to 1*s.* 3*d.* per pound on the calculation; conceiving that smuggling would thus be discouraged, consumption increased, and

and the produce of the tax raised from 1,400,000*l.* to 1,800,000*l.* a-year.

As a political economist, the Count DE C. has sound and liberal views. Of treaties of commerce he thinks, like other enlightened men, that, however suitable to a time of ignorance and insecurity, they are in these days no longer necessary, and are in fact productive of decided injury. Sudden changes, either in such treaties or in taxes, should above all things be avoided: the manufacturer makes his calculations on the existing laws; so that the slightest addition to his burdens may destroy the equilibrium, and produce a shock that will be felt from the earliest stage in production to the last in consumption. This has been strikingly exemplified in the case of salt, the duties on which are (Vol. II. p. 170.) not less injurious in France than in England; and, without rendering the article dear for domestic consumption, they deprive the agriculturist almost entirely of its use as food for cattle, or as manure for the ground. The quantities thus applied, in the years when salt was duty-free, almost exceed belief: but our pages do not admit of our making extracts either of this or of other statistical tables, such as (Vol. I. p. 173.) a return of the quantities of corn, wheat, barley, oats, and maise, raised in each respective department; or (p. 177.) of the annual produce of France in wine; or (p. 179.) of the numbers of sheep and quantities of wool; of (p. 193.) the number of horses in each province; or, lastly, (p. 197.) of a similar but more circumstantial return of the horned cattle. These documents, which to some of our readers may appear too minute, are of great interest in a geographical and political sense; for they indicate, more clearly than any description, the soil and the products of different parts of a country.

The defects to be placed in the scale against so many recommendations are of comparatively little importance. The Count DE C. falls occasionally into a diffuseness, and at other times into a minuteness of detail, which, if ever admitted into his work, ought to have been consigned to his Appendix. In his ardour for statistical estimates, he hazards (Vol. I. pp. 222. 232.) a calculation of the value of the fish extracted annually from the ponds and inclosed bays of France; and he attempts (p. 233.) to discriminate with precision the amount of the forage consumed on the ground by the cattle, compared with that which they eat in a dried state when within doors. In some passages, (Vol. I. p. 153.) his glowing colouring suggests the idea of exaggeration: but in others, (p. 166.) when discussing the possibility of extending the export of the wines and brandies of France, or when calculating (Vol. I. p. 99.) the amount

amount of future transactions with Great Britain, we are inclined to consider him as under-rating the favourable chances. Moreover, he has not gone sufficiently far in discovering the fallacy, or rather deficiency, of those statements which infer from custom-house-returns a favourable or an unfavourable balance of trade. Taking the book all in all, however, we must declare that we seldom have it in our power to announce so valuable a publication. It contains researches, not merely of a lover of science, but of a man who has been formed by habits of public business, and aided by the documents to which such habits give access. It is from inquiries like these, and from the conclusions suggested by them, that the commercial and manufacturing part of the world are to look for relief from their present distress, and that England may yet hope to obtain a revival of her former prosperity.

ART. XV. *Lettres sur l'Italie, &c.; i.e. Letters on Italy, forming a Sequel to the "Letters on the Morea, the Hellespont, and Constantinople;"* by A. L. CASTELLAN, Honorary Member of the Royal Academy of Fine Arts. With 50 Etchings, by the Author. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treutzel and Wurtz. Price 2l. 2s.

M. DE CASTELLAN is better known to the public as a painter than as a man of letters. Born at Paris in 1772, he was sent at an early age for professional improvement to Rome; after which, the prosecution of the same object, or rather of the ambitious projects of the French government, led him to Greece and Constantinople, and produced long since the publication of as much of his labours and observations as were fit for the public eye. They consisted first of "Letters on the Morea and the adjacent Islands," which appeared in 1808; next of "Travels in Greece," reported in our Appendix to vol. lxi.; and more lately of an entertaining if not a profound work, (see our Appendix to vol. lxx.) "On the Manners and Customs of the Turks." These productions, like the one now before us, are accompanied by a number of sketches from the pencil of the author; which, though rather roughly executed, are useful in conveying a distinct idea of the topography, the buildings, and the dresses in the countries described. As a scholar, the fame of M. DE CASTELLAN has never been great; and as a traveller his reputation is subordinate to that which he enjoys as a draftsman, or painter, and to which he owes his place of honorary member of the Institute. In this capacity, also, he has more than once come before the public; viz. in 1815, when he printed an essay on the *Procédé d'Enroulement*,

or the application of olive-oil on impressions of wax; and more lately (see our Appendix to Vol. lxxxiv.) in an official report on the newly discovered art of Lithography.

The "Letters on Italy" may be termed a juvenile work; the travels in question being performed so long ago as 1797, and appearing to have owed their publication to a calculation on the present repute of the writer, rather than to any inherent merit in the composition, which contains many evidences of the limited knowledge and fanciful effusions of youth. M. DE C.'s Survey of Italy began on the south-east coast; where his vessel, on arriving from Greece, touched at Otranto, and proceeded for the purpose of performing quarantine to Brindisi, the antient Brundisium, so well known to classical readers from the itinerary of Horace. Nothing can be more melancholy than the present aspect of the town; which is thinned in its population by sickness, dull from an almost total absence of trade, and having a number of its courts and streets covered by grass. The walks exhibit only a few monks and women; and the shops, which are thinly scattered, contain only articles of necessity, every object of taste or *agrément* being fetched from the larger town of Lecce, or even from the distance of Naples. In this forlorn condition, the inhabitants have resorted very generally to the plan of living in religious communities, in which individuals are received as boarders, without being pledged to the regulations of the establishment. Convents are very numerous, and several of them were visited by M. DE C., and his fellow-traveller. 'The nuns, on hearing foreigners announced, hastened (he says) to the grating of the *parloir*, and annoyed us with insignificant questions: but our embarrassment was soon dispelled by the sound of delightful music. It is only in cloisters that such voices are heard: the anthems, sung in perfect harmony, and accompanied by various instruments, produced a surprising effect; and we fancied that we were listening to a concert of angels. The countenances of a few of the nuns were perhaps indicative of gloom: but the great majority were evidently satisfied with their lot.'

The bad health of their town is ascribed by the inhabitants to a very distinguished source: they accuse Cæsar of having been the author of it, by causing piles to be driven into the strand to narrow the harbour; which piles, remaining fixed in the ground, impeded the course of the fresh water, and converted the vicinity into a great marsh. Other causes, however, have co-operated; and, above all, the indolence of the inhabitants; who might not only have removed this artificial stoppage, but have corrected the natural tendency of the adjoining country to retain stagnant water.

water. — From Brindisi, M. DE C. held a north-west course along the coast, and was taken by his guide to the celebrated field of Cannæ, which still bears the too appropriate name of *il Campo de Sangue*. He crossed the Aufidus, now called the Ofanto, which rolled on that disastrous day so many bodies down its stream; and, in traversing the great plains in the vicinity, occupied only by some scattered flocks, he was painfully reminded of the decay of several of the fairest portions of Italy, and warned against placing confidence in the highly coloured pictures of the pastoral state as given to us by the poets. The traveller who, like him, has visited La Puglia, (the antient Apulia) in Italy, or Estramadura in Spain, has seen the shepherd-state in its bare and uninviting reality.

M. DE C.'s journey in Italy was by no means long or comprehensive: from the south-east coast he proceeded to Naples, thence to Rome, Tivoli, Florence, and Pisa, but ended his observations without penetrating either to Lombardy or to the north-east. In what manner, may our readers ask, does such a traveller find materials to fill three octavo volumes? He enlarges on objects of taste with the ardour of an artist, and discovers no small share of the tendency to declamation which is so common among French writers: while his age, at the time of the journey, led him to record and even to expatiate on topics which he would either have omitted or treated very briefly, in maturer years. Of these and the other matters of his book, the following is an outline, condensed from his table of contents.

Vol. I. Departure from Corfu; Arrival at Otranto; Passage along the Coast to Brindisi; Performance of Quarantine there; Description of the Town; its insalubrity; Journey along the south-east Coast of Italy; Bari; Barletta; Description of the Territory corresponding to the antient Samnium; Naples; Vesuvius; Pompeii. — Vol. II. Terracina; Campagna di Roma: Rome; Tivoli (described at great length); the antient Villas; Remarks on Italian Painters. — Vol. III. Tuscany; Contrast between Rome and Florence; Tuscan Architecture; Paintings; Statues; Fiesole (a town to the north-east of Florence); Pratolino, (a country-palace of the Medicis); the Campo Santo of Pisa; Abbey of Vallombrosa, and the adjacent Parts of the Appennines; Conclusion.

Several of these topics possess considerable interest: but, in treating them, the author allows himself to go into details more suited to the *minutiæ* of a private journal than to the grave importance of a printed work. We shall confine our attention to passages of general interest.

Naples.—‘Pomp and misery, nearly as they approach in almost every capital, are particularly striking at Naples, where the man who displays a splendid equipage and the attendance of footmen is reduced to bare necessities in the interior of his mansion, of which, perhaps, he occupies only a corner. His income arises chiefly from card-money. Another, still more embarrassed, but who during the day shews himself only in a carriage, steals out by a back-door when the streets are lighted solely by the lamps, and is muffled up in his mantle that he may not be recognized even by this pale glimmering. Whither does he go in this mysterious garb?—to the market-place, to buy a few spoonfulls of macaroni, which he swallows in the unfurnished room that forms his only abode.

‘The number of lazzaroni has been much exaggerated; as also that of the lawyers of Naples: the latter owing to the professional dress, a mantle and black coat, having been adopted by many people of no profession, in order to distinguish them from the vulgar. The retainers of the law, whether pleaders or attorneys, do not exceed 3000.’

Portici is a country-palace of the King of Naples, with a delightful front towards the sea, and fine gardens all around. It was built in 1738, and is remarkable for its museum, or great collection of relics, which serves as a complete index to the history of the arts, manners, and customs of antiquity. The enumeration of them would be endless; and even the spectator who is aware of the magnitude of the collection, is lost in surprize at the number of statues, paintings, and vases.

‘In one part, (says M. DE C.) we behold tables, curule chairs, tripods, lamps, and candlesticks; in another, instruments of surgery, music, and kitchen-utensils: armour, offensive and defensive; jewels, trinkets for the dress of women, precious stones, and bracelets; with an assemblage of such homely objects as eggs, walnuts, corn, leguminous plants, and even oil and wine in a dried state:—all preserved during seventeen centuries under the earthen covering of Herculaneum and Pompeii. Rome presents monuments of every age, — of the Augustan, the Gothic, and the Papal government: but Pompeii is strictly antient; and, could one of its inhabitants arise and behold it in its present state, he might exclaim that he found it almost as he had left it.

‘Pompeii was a maritime town at the mouth of the small river Sarno, five miles distant from the crater of Vesuvius. The great eruption, which destroyed it in the year of Christ 79, filled, by the discharge of lava and ashes, the bed of the river, and removed its course to a distance of three miles; it also choaked up the harbour, and formed a new shore, which restrains the approach of the sea. Herculaneum, situated much nearer to the volcano, was covered with liquid matter, which filled every little void like melted lead, and, having become hard and compact with age, is removed

—with

with the greatest difficulty. Pompeii, on the other hand, disappeared under a load of ashes and *scoriæ*; which, not adhering closely, were easily removed: they covered the buildings only to the height of a few feet. The first clearing (in 1755) discovered the road leading to the city-gate. The latter may be said to have a triple entrance, viz. a central opening for carriages, and a smaller one on the right and left for foot-passengers: the street is paved with blocks of lava, and has an accommodation which so few modern towns on the Continent possess, a foot-pavement: but it is far from straight, and the breadth is very irregular. The antients seem to have paid little attention to these matters, and to have allowed every one to build where he chose: the houses of Pompeii were only of two stories in height; and the rooms were small, and without passages to lead from one to the other. On the ground-floor, each room had a door opening to a portico, which surrounded a small court containing a basin and fountain, the whole not dissimilar to the cloisters of a convent. The upper story had windows, but they were like the windows of old turrets, so narrow and so high as to prevent the person within from seeing or being seen. Instead of wood-work and a ceiling, the rooms were supported by arches, and the roofs generally ended in a terrace. In the best houses, the floors were in mosaic, and the walls were frequently covered with emblems and delineations in stucco. Nothing can be more striking than the resemblance between the relics of Pompeii and the existing buildings of the modern Greeks: both contain low ranges of stone, which surround the apartment, and on which people were accustomed, as at present in Turkey, to sit down on mats, mattresses, cushions, or carpets, the whole only a foot above the floor. It is remarkable that every thing at Pompeii is on a small scale: the largest street being only twelve feet in breadth, other streets only eight or ten, and the smaller gates of the city only four feet wide. The city-walls are nearly thirty feet in height; but the stairs leading to them can admit only two persons at a time. The houses and squares are equally diminutive; which is the more surprizing, because the great towns in Sicily and the south of Italy present in general very different dimensions.'

The parallel drawn (Vol. III. p. 2.) between the modern Romans and the Florentines exhibits a result decidedly to the advantage of the latter, who have none of the gloom or vindictiveness of their southern neighbours. In the comparison of the adjacent country, the advantage is still more on the side of the Tuscans: neat villages and cheerful towns being contrasted with miserable hamlets and rude cities. Rome is, in course, far superior in monuments of antiquity; but the mixture of modern and antient edifices creates, at first sight, a degree of confusion which is by no means pleasant, and which is never experienced in the capital of Tuscany. There all the conspicuous structures bear the date

of the 15th and 16th centuries. The traveller, approaching to Florence, sees 'those walls flanked with picturesque turrets, which encircled the town four hundred years ago, and so often repelled the efforts of the Pisans and Siennese; those castles with narrow apertures in the walls, those houses with abutments, and those decorations in fresco and bas-relief, all belong to one æra, and all characterized Florence before the age of the Medicis.'

We cannot undertake to accompany M. DE C. in his researches at Tivoli, or to weigh the authority of his conjectures relative to the villa of Catullus, the residence of Horace, or the temple of the Sibyl, but must bring our remarks to a close; and, which is much more unpleasant, infuse into them a portion of critical severity. Various passages (Vol. I. pp. 352. 366, &c.) may be quoted as replete with fantastic ebullition; and of the author's tendency to exaggeration it would be easy to exhibit several amusing examples: such as the part in which (Vol. II. p. 294.) he represents Cicero, Mæcenas, and Pliny, as travelling through all Italy without, in fact, quitting their own possessions, since they (as this true Parisian is pleased to imagine) were the owners of villas or stations all along the road. The space bestowed (Vol. III. p. 236.) on the description of Pratolino exceeds all due measure; because, however superior to other country-residences in Tuscany, it is nothing more than a rural palace with gardens. The *Campo Santo* of Pisa is a large building of an oblong form, supported by pilasters, and by arcades which inclose a court intended for the burying-place of the great families of Pisa. The building is large, being nearly 400 feet in length, 130 in width, and 40 in height: the architecture, the sculpture, and the paintings are all elegant: but, even with these various attractions, it is scarcely intitled to occupy *thirty* pages in a book purporting to treat of the whole of Italy. The result is that, in a geographical or political sense, M. DE C.'s publication is of very little use: its attractions are chiefly addressed to *amateurs* of the fine arts; and even they would have gladly seen it reduced to half its size, and freed from that negligence of arrangement on which we were forced to animadvert in our notice of the author's report to the Institute on Lithography.

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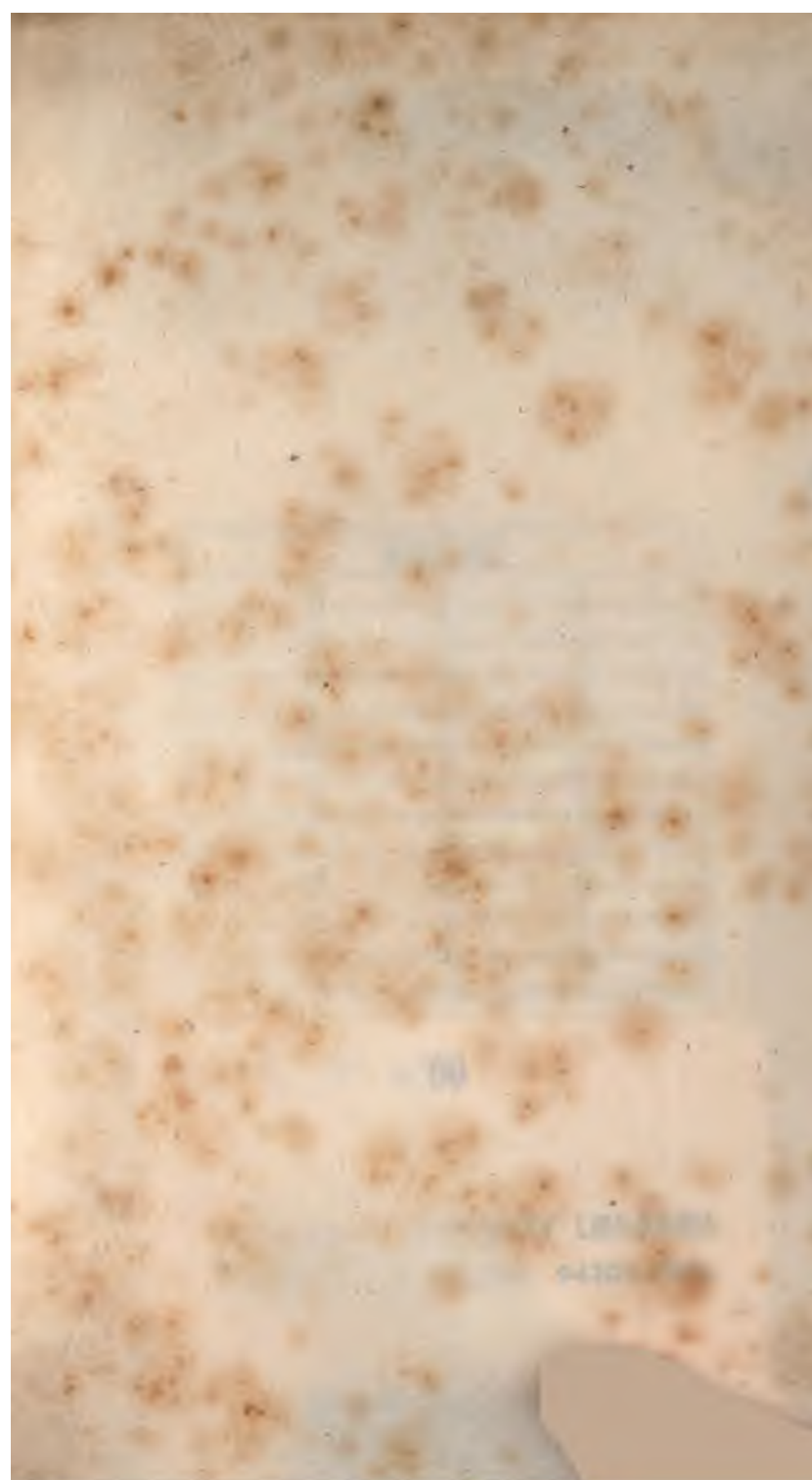
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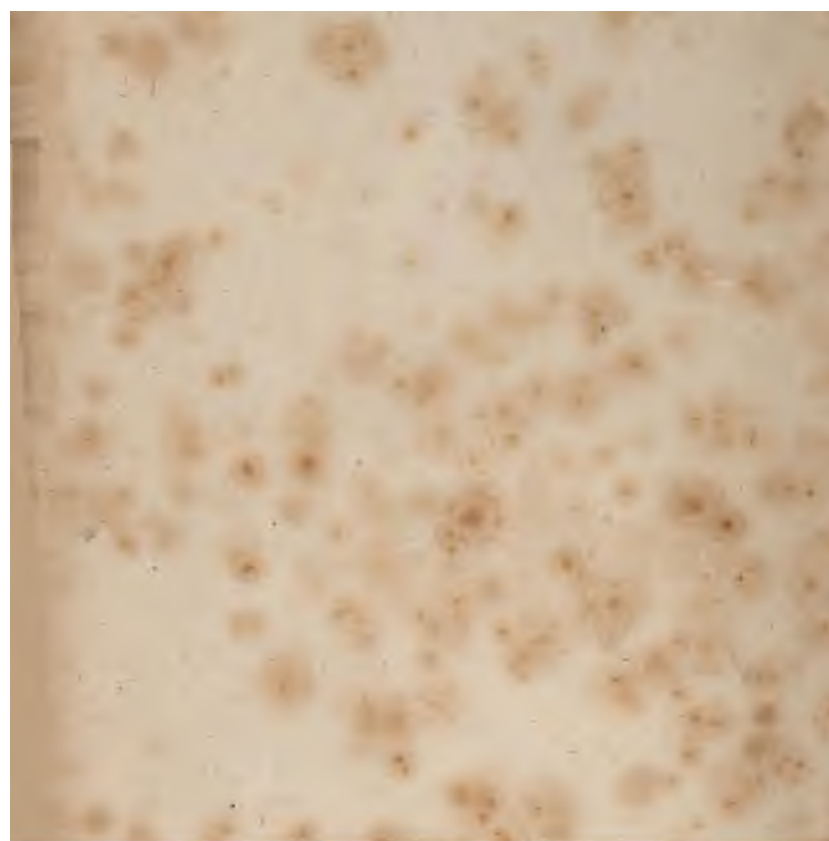
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